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ABSTRACT

This report, volume 1 in a series, is a synthesis of studies conducted under the auspices of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) Programme on Educational Building (PEB) on the theme of coordination of school and community facilities. The findings are based on a number of case studies of countries in which projects have been developed associating school buildings with facilities for other community services. The first part, "Inter-Sectoral Issues," deals with the reasons for coordinating facilities and shows that coordination can be looked on as a specific illustration of broader trends that are characteristic of the industrialized societies. In the second, "A Synthesis in the Light of International Experience," the lessons learned from the projects studied are discussed in general terms to serve as a basis for decision-making by officials in very different countries. Diagrams are provided to illustrate various aspects concerning the range of facilities that can be coordinated, possible types of grouping, the financing models used, the organizational models set up, and project development systems. The last part, "Tasks and Mechanisms," reports on a symposium held on this subject in Skokloster (Sweden) in 1976 and sets out the operational proposals of participants. The problems of coordinating facilities from the standpoint of the coordinators themselves are discussed in particular. (Author/MLF)

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BUILDING FOR SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

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The Programme on Educational Building (PEB) was established by the Council of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development as from January 1972. Its present mandate expires at the end of 1981.

The main objectives of the Programme are:

- to facilitate the exchange of information and experience on aspects of educational building judged to be important by participating Member countries;
- to promote co-operation between such Member countries regarding the technical bases for improving the quality, speed and cost effectiveness of school construction.

The Programme functions within the Directorate for Social Affairs, Manpower and Education of the Organisation in accordance with the decisions of the Council of the Organisation, under the authority of the Secretary-General. It is directed by a Steering Committee of senior government officials, and financed by participating governments.

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PREFACE

Recent work by the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) on "School and Community" and on "Education and the Integration of Community Services", together with that of the Education Committee on "Education and Inter-sectoral Planning" provides the general framework fo the studies undertaken by the Programme on Educational Building (PEB) on the theme of Co-ordination of School and Community Facilities.

In recent years a number of industrialised countries have developed projects which in one way or another associate school buildings with community facilities designed for different functions or uses. Thus, schoo and non-school activities are accommodated within the same physical setting implying relations of interdependence between the agencies or institutions responsible for the activities. The countries participating in th Programme decided therefore that the scope and significance of these experiences, which seem far more important than might be inferred from thei limited number, called for closer analysis and clarification. To what extent and under what conditions could these experiences provide useful indications or guidelines for the future on problems of school building? To what extent was it desirable, and how was it possible, to tackle these problems in relation to the provision and use of all the facilities neede by a community?

In analysing the why's and how's of projects which aim not only at meeting the educational needs of a community but also at creating a framework within which the overall social needs of the community can be taken into account, PEB has gone beyond its initial pre-occupations. But whil assuming that the school - both as a building and as an institution - can no longer be considered as a self-sufficient entity, the Programme has refrained from considering co-ordination of facilities, particularly unde the forms it has taken to date, as an ideal or a panacea. Above all, it has tried to identify the kind of problems which such co-ordination ca take into account and, to the extent that these problems are inescapable indicate necessary or desirable conditions for tackling them with the greatest chance of success.

The method adopted for the study is linked to the way in which the initial questions were posed. Taking as a point of departure situations characteristic of the trend towards greater co-ordination of facilities, the work initially consisted in an analysis of a number of specific examples. Some of these were written up as case studies and are published in four separate volumes, each dealing with a particular country situation (England/Australia, France, Sweden, and the United States).

On the basis of these individual studies, further work was undertaken with a view to identifying and analysing a number of common problems likely to be of interest to those concerned in Member countries, and proposing strategies for action. This part of the work was conducted by the Secretariat in close collaboration with a number of specialists and officials in participating countries. A multi-disciplinary team, composed of the consultants in charge of the case studies, was involved from the initial preparation right through to the analysis of their results. Furthermore, a Symposium at which the members of this team acted as "animateurs" and which brought together a large number of administrators, educationists, urban planners and architects from participating countries, provided the opportunity for people who, in various capacities, are working in this area to supplement and clarify this analysis.

The present publication, Building for School and Community: I. Policies and Strategies, groups the general reports resulting from this latter phase of the work. The three reports constitute a whole which reflects both the continuity and diversity of approach of the work undertaken.

Co-ordination of facilities has been regarded as a specific expression of wider trends to which it first had to be related. This is the purpose of the first report "Inter-sectoral Issues" by Thierry Malan, Professor at the International Institute of Public Administration, Paris. Lessons subsequently had to be drawn from actual situations in which co-ordination of facilities had been implemented or attempted and in terms that were sufficiently general to serve decision-makers in a number of very different countries. This is the intention behind the report "A Synthesis in the Light of International Experience" prepared by the Secretariat with the assistance of the team of consultants referred to earlier. Finally, the last report in this volume contains the proposals for action developed by the participants at the Skokloster Symposium (Sweden, September/October 1976) in the light of their personal experience and on the basis of the studies and reports previously referred to. Although the result of a joint effort, this report bears the personal mark of its author, Professor Guy Oddie, who, in his capacity of Rapporteur General of the Symposium, has been responsible for drafting it. Since

Professor Oddie has been serving for many years as the Senior Adviser to the Programme, his personal contribution can be regarded as an expression of common ideas largely shared by those who, with a keen and at times impassioned interest, have been associated with the work on facilities co-ordination.

The Symposium Report occupies a particular place among the results of the work undertaken. Not only did the Symposium represent the culmination of this work but the ensuing text also reflects the viewpoints of people responsible and directly involved in the field, in their respective countries, for planning, designing and operating facilities, and many of whom have had firsthand experience of the problems of co-ordination. In contrast to the first two reports which have been written more from the standpoint of the observer, the Symposium Report expresses the "inside view" of these problems.

It is for this reason that the PEB Steering Committee paid particular attention to this report and discussed its contents at length at one of its recent sessions. It approved the general lines of the report and proposed certain modifications which have been introduced in the final version. Whilst expressing its appreciation of the concrete nature of the proposals made by the Symposium, particularly as regards design considerations and measures of support to co-ordination undertakings, the Committee also subscribed to the concern, reflected in the report, for considering co-ordination as a long and exacting search rather than as a recourse to pre-defined solutions.

Nonetheless, the Symposium Report should not be regarded as necessarily expressing the views of the Steering Committee on co-ordination of facilities or on the policies it implies. The Committee did in fact raise a number of questions which the report leaves open and which would require further study before the results of the Symposium could be translated into actual policies. One of these questions concerns the scale at which it is considered most desirable to tackle the problems of facilities co-ordination. Indeed, there is a conflict between, on the one hand, the need to define projects at a level of sufficiently small and coherent communities to be able to perceive their needs and overcome the problems co-ordination entails and, on the other hand, the necessity to plan facilities so that they serve sufficiently large zones to ensure the interdependence of the various communities as well as equality of opportunity between them.

Another question raised concerns the participation of the local community in the planning of projects, a concept that needs further clarification. Here again, there is often a conflict between the trend

for local communities to gain or keep sufficient power of decision to adapt facilities and services to their particular requirements and the responsibility of higher authorities allocating the resources for ensuring control over their use and for safeguarding the general interests of wider communities.

The present volume is published under the responsibility of the Secretary-General. The views expressed in the reports contained in this volume are those of their authors and in no way commit the OECD or the authorities concerned in Member countries.

INTER-SECTORAL ISSUES

by

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INTRODUCTION

1. In order to achieve their own aims and make their contribution to other social policies, education policies have increasingly in recent years had to be co-ordinated with various other sectoral policies: employment policy, social policies, regional planning policies, policies for leisure, etc. At the same time, because of the problems raised by seeking new uses for old schools or planning new urban development areas, very diverse situations of co-ordination, and even of integration, between school and non-school buildings have been created.

2. The motives for co-ordination between policies, between agencies and administrations, between construction projects, vary in importance according to the projects. They are usually economic (to prevent duplication, to use existing facilities, to economise land, to get the maximum return from the activity of various services by bringing in the others in order to produce a multiplier effect on the efficiency of each of them, and so on), but are also social and educational. These motives cannot be regarded as the beginning of a linear process which would make the co-ordination situations actually achieved the direct result of the working out of integrated policies which bring together the various sectors of intervention of the public authorities. It is usually when concrete projects and arrangements for co-ordination between services are being thought out to deal with new problems which can only be solved imperfectly or not at all in the usual frameworks for intervention by such services, that the points of contact required between various policies have clearly emerged. Co-ordination, or even integration, of facilities may then be considered as one method of approach, among others, to this integration of policies.

3. In the best cases it is the discovery by each service concerned of its own limits, in the pursuit of its own objectives and in its ability to respond to the requests of other services, which has encouraged it to become actively involved in projects for the co-ordination or integration of facilities. The elucidation of the various kinds of motives then serves in the main as a systematic justification of the objectives of projects, in order to overcome the difficulties in implementing them, and to make it easier to integrate the results achieved into the usual frameworks for planning.

4. Among these motives, besides the assumption already mentioned of greater operational efficiency of the various services and a better use of buildings, the following may be distinguished: those which arise from internal changes in education policies (Part One), those which reflect regional planning policy perspectives, in particular urban planning (Part Two), and those which reflect the new concerns of social policies (Part Three). Finally, the point in time when these motives emerge, the transition from motives to projects, the degree of difficulty experienced in implementing the projects, and the realisation that it might be possible to have a policy for co-ordinating and integrating community facilities in order to achieve the new objectives which such motives reflect - all these elements depend upon the study of the institutional context peculiar to each country. The projects actually carried out can also reveal much about the more general institutional problems experienced by the various countries in the implementation of their policies. Some of these problems will also be described (Part Four).

Part One
MOTIVES CONNECTED WITH CHANGES IN DOMINANT CONCEPTS ABOUT EDUCATION

5. In its origins the school was almost everywhere an unspecific place, without any special facilities. Just as the teacher was often at the same time the town clerk, responsible for the general affairs of the municipality, so the school building was a community centre for public meetings, celebrations, lectures and even private gatherings. It was already a multi-purpose place, very simple, serving all the cultural, educational and social needs of a small-scale community which was itself still not very differentiated in its activities and habits. A modern illustration of this situation can still be seen in the English primary schools, often conceived from the start as the neighbourhood community centres par excellence. The history of the school in the United States shows a comparable situation: the schoolhouse of the early pioneers was first a single room for activities reflecting the needs of the community, not limited to children only, not enclosed in the narrow framework of a school year. It came under the responsibility of the whole community and could in case of need be used as a shelter, a storehouse, an emergency hospital - all uses which might be considered as educational since they were necessary for the adaptation of the community and the young to

contemporary circumstances, and for their survival. The education function proper - the importing of certain areas of knowledge in the framework of a programme, involving a certain isolation of the young, was therefore liable to be interrrupted for activities which were not necessarily regarded as contrary to its real function. It was only gradually that that function became dominant to the exclusion of the other functions.(1)

6. Thereafter education became a subject for specific policy and action undertaken by states which saw in it a splendid means of building up a unified national awareness. At the same time urban growth, linked with a diversification of activities and trades as a result of industrial development, created a demand for training for those new activities in the schools. This demand increased both the internal diversification of the school and its isolation from the rest of society. Schools now became quite specific places, and also grew in size, both because the successive extensions of the duration of compulsory schooling meant that they had to deal with greater numbers of pupils, and because they had to cater for increased demands in regard to the content of training. This was the case, for example, with technical education, which in its curricula and equipment tried as well as it could to keep up with developments in industry.

7. Present trends to co-ordinate or integrate facilities are one of the current signs of the limits to what the school can do to adjust within itself and to the ability of the education system to deal on its own with the problems raised. At the same time the monopoly of the school is being more and more contested by the intervention of other institutions or enterprises - primarily the whole range of mass communication media - which absorb an important proportion of the school children's time and attention. This increased competition with the monopoly of the school by external power sources which reflect changes in the knowledge and concerns of society more rapidly than the school can do, is accompanied by a constant calling into question of the contents, methods and structures of education. The result of this twofold phenomenon is that the school can no longer find within itself all the means necessary for its own expansion. It has therefore to engage in a process of co-ordination in which it borrows from other sectors the means for coping with its own objectives, sometimes assigning to them roles which it used to fulfil itself.

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1) Margrit Kennedy, "From Individual Projects towards City-wide Networks", paragraphs 7 and 8, Building for School and Community: III. United States, OECD, Paris, 1978.

8. With regard to content the school can thus be seen to open up to new problem areas created by some of the consequences of growth, such as environment protection (which has come to occupy a large place in United States education in recent years) or teaching young children rules for road safety (in the context of intersectoral policies for reducing the number of road accidents, the incidence of which is particularly high among young children). At the same time teaching methods are putting greater emphasis on getting pupils to co-operate with each other, to work on their own and to find their own documentary sources - all of which has created a need for suitable accommodation. This need can be met either by providing facilities specifically for the school, or by inviting the school to share such new facilities with other users (mediathèques, libraries open to the non-school public).

9. The massive growth in the use of audio-visual media in school establishments also opens up a similar kind of choice: either the school system develops its own network for its own exclusive use (an example of this is the television network for the London primary schools) or it plans its facilities in a wider context, such as the neighbourhood or the town: in the project for an audio-visual Collège d'enseignement secondaire - CES - at Grenoble, for example, it was originally intended to use a television-by-cable network which would serve the whole town (this network, strangely enough, has been set up for the town, but not for the Collège). Whatever the solution adopted, the systematic use of this kind of teaching media compels the school to enter into the world of mass communication media and develop its own policy within it.

10. School structures have also moved towards an extension of the duration of compulsory schooling, and an increase in numbers still attending school beyond compulsory education, trends which have reinforced, particularly for the 16 to 19 year-olds, the gaps they feel between a traditional school and an outside world which demands quicker and more varied reactions from them than in the past. At the same time the legal age for coming of age has been lowered to 18 in almost all the countries under review, which means that adult citizens can find that they still have the status of pupils for one or two years. As regards facilities, these developments mean that teaching areas can no longer retain their specific characteristics but must be conceived for young adults, who want to find in them a life setting and work environment which are not exclusively oriented towards the acquisition of knowledge.

11. Whereas the accent was normally put on the "transmission of knowledge" function which teaching establishments were expected to fulfil, the crises which have occurred in education have led to greater and more explicit emphasis being put on their function of methodical preparation for life in society. This function has always been assigned to the school(1) but this was largely done in the past by means of the contents of the curriculum, which was supposed to ensure that a social consensus was built up. The calling into question of curriculum contents, the realisation that they cannot be properly transmitted and assimilated unless they correspond to what families expect of them and to their cultural models (in other words, when there are no large contradictions between the influence of the family and that of the school) have robbed this essential function of the school of much of its effectiveness.

12. A new emphasis is therefore being put on the importance of the other aspects of school life in this function of the "methodical socialisation of the younger generation".(2) As far as buildings are concerned, this means making them into more pleasant places to spend time in for the pupils as well as the teachers, taking more care to ensure that their size remains on "the human scale", and increasingly to seeing that they are integrated with the surrounding neighbourhood. Thus for example, France has abandoned the model of the lower secondary school (CES) with 1 200 places for models with 600 and 900 places, and is gradually coming round to allowing small establishments for less than 400 pupils to be built in rural areas. Similarly university campuses are also being called in question as factors causing isolation and excessive segregation of urban functions, and there is increasing support for integrating university establishments into the towns, where they can help in the desegregation of age groups, stimulate urban life and serve as brand image for the town (thus going back to forms recalling those of the earliest European universities: for example the famous German universities located in small towns like Göttingen, Heidelberg, Tübingen, and for which they determine the whole tone of life).

13. School architecture is looking for ways of adapting itself to these changes in education policies: continuing education, which is blurring the dividing-line between school and non-school; the idea of opening up the school to the community; the educational objective of teaching children how to learn ("apprendre à apprendre"), which is becoming all the more

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1) J. Dewey, Democracy and Education, 1928.
G. Durkheim, Education et sociologie, 1922.

2) Durkheim, ibidem.

important the more uncertainty grows and the social consensus dwindles concerning the contents of education - all these developements require an architecture which puts the accent on flexibility, adaptability, polyvalence, ridding the buildings of their "schoolish" atmosphere. This architectural research is not in itself a stimulator of co-ordination between the school and other facilities, but it creates technical conditions and an attitude of mind which favour such co-ordination in projects integrating facilities dependent of various services.

RESPONSES OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

14. The school thus finds itself caught in the cross-fire of conflicting forces:

Forces tending towards growth in school size and capacity: increasing numbers of pupils to accommodate, greater concentration of population in new urban districts, cost of land, development of technical education and the need for mechanical aids, development of an education offering options which multiplies choices between courses and activities and means of documentation. These forces may lead to the adoption of a solution consisting of building up veritable school campuses like the "cités scolaires" in France for example, in which several establishments of different types and levels are juxtaposed and cater for a combined total of several thousand pupils concentrated on a single enormous site.

Forces tending to reduce school size: desire to keep establishments on a human scale, the search for better integration with the surrounding neighbourhood, efforts to distinguish between school establishments in the legal sense and buildings themselves, by resorting if necessary to physical divisions, having several separate teaching units possessing a certain independence within the same establishment.

Forces tending to open up the school to the community to meet both internal requirements (the need to adapt contents and methods, which in turn requires calling on other persons, places or institutions) and external requirements (the growing demands made by society on its school).

Forces tending to isolate the school: overriding determination to maintain the specificity of the school's activity, a very autonomist conception of education, a high degree of centralisation of the school

system as in France, which makes any change of significant proportions dependent on decisions taken at national level.

15. The interplay of these forces breaks down the traditional isolation of the school as an institution and compels it to look for new principles of integration and consistency in its activities, new criteria for sharing tasks and powers between the world of education and the other social institutions. Both its own internal constraints on development and the demands formulated by the other sectors thus compel the school to redefine what should remain specific to it - the tasks for which it should continue to take sole responsibility - and what it can share. The new forms of school organisation are the resultant of these forces. Their interplay depends on a large number of factors connected with the strategies of pressure groups within and outside the world of education, the practical conditions in which opportunities for effective co-ordination between the school and other institutions emerge (decisions on new uses for redundant school facilities, for example), and institutional factors peculiar to each country.

Strategies of the Various Pressure Groups with regard to Co-ordination

16. In a context of differing, indeed even conflicting, value systems, co-ordination may be one of the components of a policy for preventing the school from living in isolation from its environment, from becoming - in the words of a president of a French university speaking of the university - "a nursery for people suffering from prolonged adolescence". This attitude is one of the symptoms of the present disillusionment with the virtues and efficiency of the educational system - in contrast to the infatuation and optimism of the sixties - in fulfilling one of the essential tasks which have been assigned to it, namely "the methodical socialisation of the younger generation".(1) The aim of those who agree with this criticism is therefore to ensure that much closer links than exist at present are established between enterprises, administrations and education establishments. One way of doing this might be the de-specialisation of school facilities, the use of other premises for on-the-job training, and in the extreme case the disappearance of the school as a specific place, apart from the accommodation housing the school administration. A model for this kind of development may be seen in the Philadelphia Parkway Program (United States), in which the school is essentially not a physical place in which the pupils are gathered together, but an organising centre for training programmes

1) Durkheim, op. cit.

adapted to various publics, and a co-ordinating centre for a number of different education activities taking place in other places intended for other purposes, on the "Parkway" or elsewhere in the city, tc which the pupils are sent.

17. The internal pressure groups in the education system will oppose this approach with the argument that, even if the school changes in contact with the other fields of social activity, it must remain a specific place for which there can be no substitute. They will support this argument by pointing to the utterly utopian and dangerous nature of conceptions of the school without walls and, in the context of projects for co-ordination and integration, will defend the thesis that a certain isolation of the school must be maintained (and a certain preponderance, or at least a right of veto, in the management of the co-ordinated or integrated entity) to guarantee the normal exercise by the school of its specific function. The fears expressed may concern the dangers of accidents and the possibility that teachers or heads of schools may be held responsible for them; the risks of coming into contact with marginal individuals if the school is situated in a busy centre, or in a rundown residential area; the risks of excessive distractions and temptations, especially if the school is situated near shopping centres or places of entertainment; the increased difficulties of maintaining activities requiring stage-by-stage, rigorously controlled learning, activities which rightly form one of the essential aspects of the specific function of the school, and one which has been most disturbed by the repercussions of the "parallel school".

18. The people in charge of the school system may consider that by limiting the opening-up of the school to what is strictly necessary to let fresh air into the curriculum and make the climate of the school acceptable to the pupils, they are really doing more for the community as a whole and its long-term objectives than they would do if they sacrificed the specificity of the school by allowing in too many activities for the benefit of the immediate neighbourhood. The school authorities may fear indeed that in projects aiming at integrating the school with other services, as regards buildings and functions, the part of the curriculum which is not strictly academic (activities for stimulating interest, artistic expression, various kinds of workshops) could be more attractive to the pupils than the "harder" part which requires more organised and closely controlled learning (and which can get along better with more austere and isolated school accommodation).

Situations Creating Conditions Necessitating Co-ordination

19. Many examples of the re-deployment of school premises to other uses, within the education system or outside it, can be found in the United States: elementary or secondary schools have thus accommodated other types of training, for adults for example, or services ancillary to the school: information and guidance centres, school psychology consultations, re-education, nursery school, special educational programmes, offices for teachers, etc. Declining numbers of pupils in a school, by making additional space available, may make room for experiments and innovations, or make it possible to group together services previously separated.(1) Other utilisations have been, for example, the installation of various kinds of administrative offices, care and prevention centres, community centres, child care centres, libraries, documentation centres, shops. School buildings which have been sold have been converted into shops, museums, factories, apartments, hotels, and so on.

20. Redundant schools are also sometimes used to accommodate pupils of other schools undergoing renovation, or to house any other activities during a transitional period between old and new facilities: they can thus serve as a space reserve allowing adaptations to be made to other services. Sometimes this re-deployment of space gives rise to on-the-spot co-ordination between currently separated services and activities. Sometimes co-ordination of other services leads to changes in the use of school premises: thus at Arlington (Virginia) where a law of 1973 made it possible for school buses to be used to carry other types of passengers besides school children, in particular old people, or for recreational programmes organised by the municipal authorities, the latter subsequently also used schools as catering centres for old people.

21. This problem of the re-deployment of premises to other uses arises when the administration in charge of education is carrying out a policy of redeploying its resources in the light of new objectives. Thus in France for example, because of urban growth and the consequent transfers of population the Ministry of Education tried for a long time to enforce the closure of single-class village primary schools when the total number of pupils fell below 16, so as to be able to transfer the teaching posts to urban areas where school enrolments were much higher. In doing this, the administration is acting in accordance with an administrative and political pressure system which is accustomed to operate sectorally, directing

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1) Fewer Pupils/Surplus Space, Educational Facilities Laboratories Inc., New York, March 1974.

investment and staff to the points where each sector's requirements are most urgent. But just as the school was often one of the first community facilities of the village, it has also usually been the last that the authorities have managed to close down. In many cases the closing-down of the school has been regarded by the local inhabitants - much more than the closing-down of other public services - as the sentence of death for the village. In the context of an overall policy for preventing the devitalization of rural areas, the administration has been induced to lower the threshold for closure to 12 pupils and to permit single-class schools to be maintained wherever they appear to be the only practicable mode of schooling, not only on geographical grounds (distance) but also - and this is new - on sociological grounds. Similarly, the thresholds for establishing lower secondary schools (CES) have been lowered from a minimum of 400 pupils to 120 (one modular educational unit - "une unité pédagogique modulaire" - UPM) and in general to 240 (2 UPMs) in rural areas with low population density.

22. The sectoral policy of the education administration was above all to redeploy resources towards areas with the largest concentrations of enrolments and to regroup them (at the same time organising a whole network of school transport) so that pupils could be offered a sufficient range of options and qualified teachers as part of a general objective of reduction of inequalities and educational reform. The necessity of co-ordinating this policy with a new policy of physical planning in rural areas (cf. Part Two) in order to maintain a minimum level of community services in the countryside - beginning with the school, which is regarded as of special psychological importance - meant that its initial objectives had to be modified at national level.

23. In the United States, at Wilmington (Delaware), it was again the projected closing-down of the Howard school, all pupils of which were black, in the context of the application of the federal laws on racial desegregation in education, which aroused the opposition of the inhabitants to the school's closure and compelled the authorities to think out a new approach. Following a "charette", an intensive planning session, lasting a week it was decided to keep the school and transform it into an "educational park" by adding to it a crèche, adult education services, and a centre for urban studies, to be housed in the old school buildings, and to build alongside it an arts centre and a guidance centre.(1) This case combines

1) Community/School: Sharing the Space and the Action, Educational Facilities Laboratories Inc., New York, 1973.

the modernisation of an old facility originally intended for demolition and the building of new facilities in a co-ordinated complex. This made it possible to meet the desires expressed by the population and avoid having to move the school children elsewhere, while at the same time complying with the requirements of the desegregation laws. The taking into account in this way, at national or local level, of considerations other than those of the sectoral policy for education often leads to a new definition of the objectives of education policy itself.

New Forms of School Organisation

24. The search for new forms of school organisation gives rise to increased co-ordination between the various elements of the education system and between the system as a whole and the other sectors of social activity, and this increased co-ordination can give rise to the establishment of new centres of gravity in the allocation of activities among the various institutions. In the extreme case the co-ordination of facilities can lead to the school without walls (cf. the example of the Philadelphia Parkway Program) in which the school premises no longer have anything specific about them.

25. In practice one meets extremely varied examples of exchanges of services and premises between the school and its environment. The school seeks to associate parents with its activity, to propose to pupils out-of-school activities, while at the same time offering its premises for other activities of the community: club meetings, performances of plays; thus for example the Rijnland Lyceum, because it was equipped with the appropriate facilities, was used for several months by the town of Oegstgeest, Leiden, the Netherlands, as its theatre while the municipal theatre was being rebuilt.

26. Generally speaking, the role of the school as a community centre, open to a two-way exchange of activities with the community, is recognised, but the practical consequences resulting from that recognition vary widely. The Berlin 1970 plan for school development, for example, provides that the school centres (Schulzentren) shall become "educational" centres (Bildungszentren) so as to integrate public institutions such as workers' universities, schools of music, public libraries, and to open up to the public the resources of the school such as the mediathèque, meeting halls, specialised rooms. In other cases all that is done is to recognise the general principle of the reciprocal opening-up of contacts between the school and other institutions, within the limits of the possibilities of each of these institutions.

27. The main question is the relative weight of the school in the complex of co-ordinated or integrated facilities. As soon as they have accepted co-ordination with other institutions, the pressure groups within the educational system will seek to maintain the specificity of the school by ensuring that it, and its staff, have a leading role in the complex. The Anglo-Saxon countries have thus generally adopted the concept of the "community school". Several successive generations of community schools have been identified.(1) There were the original schools, places for many community activities which were gradually excluded to make room for the isolated specialised schools. Then came the occasional use of school premises for other activities. This was followed by the first generation of community schools proper, with schools constructed on the model of the Flint (Michigan) Community School Program (1935), open to the public in the evenings and during the weekends (about 700 school districts followed this model). Then came the second generation with an organisation based on joint and shared use of space between various users /e.g. the Thomas Jefferson Junior High School and Community Centre at Arlington (Virginia)/ concerned with education and recreational activities (drama, music, dancing, handicrafts). The third generation is concerned with much more ambitious projects, associating not only school and socio-educational activities but also medical and social services, and administrative offices; that is to say, trying to respond in the most global way possible to the needs of the population of an entire area /e.g. the Human Resources Centre, Pontiac (Michigan), and the J.F. Kennedy School and Community Center, Atlanta,(Georgia)/. Each of these stages corresponds to progress in the planning process involving steadily widening combinations of partners and points of view. The formula used by the OECD Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI), "the school as the core of an integrated system of community facilities", expresses both this trend of growing complexity and the preponderant role that the school still retains.

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1) Richard J. Passantino, "The Schoolhouse of the Future", Phi Delta Kappan, January 1975.

Part Two

THE URBAN PLANNING APPROACH

28. In urban planning the co-ordination and integration of community facilities is a particular aspect of a more general problem that has to be solved: designing the provision of housing and facilities of all kinds so as to give new urban areas the minimum quality of community services that their inhabitants will expect. In this appoach educational facilities are only one of the various elements to be co-ordinated - but a particularly important one in view of their obligatory character, and symbolic value and the proportion of public expenditure assigned to them in comparison with other types of facilities.

CO-ORDINATION OF COMMUNITY FACILITIES AND URBAN PLANNING

29. The functionalist theory developed by the Athens Charter (1938) led to the conception of urban planning as the juxtaposition of a series of specialised spaces, each reserved for a specific, clearly identified function: living, working, cultivating body and mind, moving about. Its practical effects have included increasing specialisation and isolation of spaces appropriated by separate developers; and this specialisation is matched by patterns and methods of administration that are themselves compartmented, accustomed to care for the needs of a given population category defined restrictively for the purpose - school children, sick people, pedestrians, sportsmen, etc. - and to respond with specific constructions, each with its reserved place in the urban fabric.

30. Urban planning then consists mainly in the juxtaposition and coherent development over a period of time of a set of facilities corresponding to the standards of service and quality prevailing at a given moment; the actual construction of these facilities is left to each sector of activity concerned, without questioning the distribution of their competence; there is no attempt to co-ordinate the construction or functioning of these facilities, still less to integrate them.

31. This conception of urban planning is reflected in numerous community facilities distinguished according to their principal function and obeying specific rules of construction, functioning and financing. They have a specific public and specific professionals, the latter tending to consider themselves as the only experts capable of knowing what this public needs and of giving it to them. These professionals often come under different administrative authorities which determine their role and their relationships with their public at the same time as they define how the facilities should operate. The diversification of the action of the different administrations trying, in order to satisfy their public better, to get a slightly better grasp of the areas surrounding their specific activity, leads to competition and duplication of facilities. For instance, in France, youth and cultural centres come under the Secretariat of State for Youth, Sports and Leisure, but in much of their activity they are scarcely distinguishable from the social centres attached to the Ministry of Health since the latter have extended their role of social aid to cover a wider conception of social "animation". Yet co-ordination of these often similar facilities is difficult to ensure locally as a result of the multiplicity of national rules separately determining their creation, financing and operation.

32. Industrialisation and its accompanying urban development create needs for community facilities and at the same time the means of satisfying them; but the social demands resulting from greater awareness of these needs often exceed these resources; at the same time the rapid development of such needs leads to scattered adjustments on the part of the responsible authorities which compete with each other in extending their field of action, demonstrating their efficiency, improving their image and sharing out financial resources which have become comparatively scarcer.

33. Several factors thus combine to give a more global view of urban development and therefore create new fields of co-ordination:

- the scale of urbanisation, which creates new needs, and increases disequilibria between town and country, and between old and new urban areas;
- increasing possibilities of comparison, due to the advance in communications, which tend to align public expectations on the levels of satisfaction attained in the areas with the best facilities;
- employment difficulties which, by reducing mobility, lead the most severely affected social groups to expect more satisfaction from their immediate environment and existing facilities and which

consequently make environmental deterioration and inadequate facilities even more unbearable;
- sensitivity to social inequalities which leads the public authorities to put more emphasis on the role of social integration and reduction of inequalities to be assumed by community facilities.

34. The urban planning approach naturally tends to allot an essential role to the objects with which it deals - housing and supporting facilities - in the settlement of social problems: it therefore tends to set common rules for the action of the authorities responsible for these various supporting facilities, notably community facilities (for which the quality of urban development is a secondary matter). Urban planning represents the best angle of approach for getting more rationality into administrative action because, being close to everyday life, it is better able to identify users' needs in their new complexity and therefore to co-ordinate the sectoral and partial responses that the various administrative authorities make to such needs, despite their attempts at adjustment.

35. There are many examples of global development policies and institutional mechanisms for co-ordination: the most spectacular example is that of the new towns, which have a very open field of co-ordination (since almost everything has to be set up from scratch and they have no constraints in the form of existing facilities) and at the same time an administrative instrument responsible for such co-ordination - an "établissement public d'aménagement" or development corporation. The dominant objectives and the methods of co-ordination vary according to the country: creation of centres of attraction in the French new towns, close links between allocation of housing and getting a job, creation of neighbourhood units in the English new towns, links between commercial activities and community activities ("agora" at Dronten in the Netherlands or Evry in France), search for a personality marked by a field of activity (e.g. location of the "Institut national de l'Audiovisuel" in the new town of Marne-la-Vallée in the Paris Region with the idea of affirming the town's vocation for accommodating activities linked with audiovisual media), etc.

36. The co-ordination of physical integration of facilities almost always appears in new towns as a special application of a more general tendency towards better co-ordination of space organisation. New towns sometimes also present themselves as "innovation laboratories", one of the innovations being integrated facilities. Apart from the innovation objectives particular to each case, innovation in itself becomes an objective for the planners, with the idea that it can lead to models that can be extended to less "favourable" situations than those of the new towns; the motives

here are essentially technocratic and are strengthened by the lack of inherited facilities with their own history and their own mode of operation and especially by the absence of the future inhabitants of the town.

37. Urban renewal schemes in old districts and projects to convert buildings to new uses also call for greater co-ordination between the various agents trying to adjust their action (each with too limited resources and viewpoints in the light of the needs increasingly proclaimed by the social groups concerned, who refuse to wait or to accept the limits of sectoral competence opposed to their demands). Better than the case of the new towns, these situations make it clear to the planners that the development of a town is first of all a social process determining the most important objectives of co-ordination and that, consequently, the identification of needs depends first on increased involvement of the inhabitants in improving their living environment, beginning with their immediate neighbourhood.

38. This trend may be summed up in a phrase used by the director of land use and urban development in the French ministry of public works, housing and urban planning ("ministère de l'Equipement"): "More grey matter and less concrete". It recognises several factors which each represent a problem of co-ordination:

- the construction of infrastructure facilities and community facilities remains indispensable to meet needs, but is expensive, and the diversification of needs and possible responses increases problems of arbitration;
- the mere provision of facilities is not enough to meet needs; this concept must be deepened through greater participation;
- the basic list of facilities and norms adopted by the various ministries are often unrealistic in relation to the effective financing possibilities and lead to unnecessary competition between them in several areas;
- failure to forecast subsequent operating expenditures for the facilities created may lead to their under-utilisation;
- a precise global analysis of the needs of a given population in any area may make it possible to rehabilitate and co-ordinate existing facilities without necessarily calling for new investment;
- better co-ordination of resources and procedures of state administration, combined with greater powers of planning, study and decision-making at local level, and the organisation of greater participation by inhabitants and users of community facilities and services would make it possible to identify needs better and to respond without imposing a predetermined framework defined theoretically on the basis of average situations.

39. An interesting example of the intervention of users in a decision process leading to co-ordination is the case of the Thomas Jefferson Community Centre in Arlington (Virginia), United States. Without any federal prompting two local administrations (the school district and the environment department) were obliged to co-ordinate their projects following a vote by the population rejecting the school district's proposal to use a certain site for building a new school. The school district was in competition for the site with the environment department - which wanted to build a community centre on it - and this was the only site large enough to fit either project. After the rejection of the school project, the two authorities combined their respective proposals with the help of a research grant from the Educational Facilities Laboratories, New York City, and the new project was accepted by the population.

40. Beyond its search for a more global approach to development problems, hitherto mainly devoted to the provision of facilities, urban planning is expected to be also an instrument of social policy objectives.

EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES IN URBAN PLANNING

41. Urban planning looks on educational establishments as one type of community facilities among others, though they are often privileged through being obligatory and having special symbolic importance. Part One showed some examples of population resistance to the closing of schools, especially when the latter occurs in periods of crisis which accentuate its effects. There is keen inter-town competition for the location of educational establishments and this may lead to priority being given to speed of construction and to number of units - in order to satisfy more applicants. This focus on urgency may be to the detriment of efforts to seek co-ordination at local level permitting a more detailed analysis of needs, integrating all existing training facilities and offering possibilities of meeting demands from sectors other than education.

42. In almost all countries where new towns have been created, the agencies responsible for their creation and promotion make their offer of specially harmonious living and education conditions for children a central element in their marketing policy. The idea of innovation becomes a central argument of sales talk. The school is thus one of the first community facilities to be built, sometimes even before housing and shops, as in Gananda, a new town near Rochester (New York State), where the school designed as a community centre, but separate from the shops,

is already, thanks to a school transport system, receiving the children from the rural districts on the territory of which the new town is to be built. For the planners, the school thus has a central role to play in the process of making the future inhabitants aware of the unity of the future town and its role of social integration for the various groups of the population.

43. This social integration function is all the more important as the people coming to live in new towns often feel uprooted because of the new social and geographical environment, the age distribution of the population where young couples and small children dominate (which also explains why the emphasis is often put on the needs of young children rather than on those of adolescents). The fact that coming to live in a new town rather than in other urban areas implies a choice, gives increasing importance to the attractiveness of the image, which the new towns give themselves, of community development, modern design and innovatory educational facilities. It also seems that a local policy of co-ordinating school facilities with other facilities is the more acceptable the greater the population consensus regarding the school's internal organisation. For instance, at Yateley, in England, the absence of any debate on the question of the comprehensive school facilitated the discussions on the community school and its use for non-school purposes.(1)

44. Because of the need to act quickly and create in a few years a level of facilities that usually took several generations elsewhere and by applying a community development model, most of the schools set up in new towns are conceived as schools open to other sectors of the public, as community centres. In France it is especially in the new towns that integrated facilitities projects are to be found which include schools as important components.(2) Co-ordinated facilities remain however an isolated phenomenon: current projects are continued but they retain an experimental

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1) Guy Hawkins, "Yateley School and Community Centre, England", paragraph 72, Building for School and Community: IV. England, Australia, OECD, Paris, 1978.

2) The precursors of this movement, the Centre éducatif et culturel of Val d'Yerres and the Collège d'enseignement secondaire/maison de quartier of Villeneuve de Grenoble, were not however built in new towns; the first was created due mainly to the initiative of a promoter of industrialised school building who became deputy mayor of the municipality of Yerres, where he had decentralised his building enterprise, and who was at the same time a militant in the "new school" movement; the second was carried out as part of the development of a whole new district "Villeneuve", with the support of the municipality and movements for the participation and organisation of users and residents into "extra-municipal committees", in conditions rarely encountered in France.

character and the trend is rather towards schools that are more open to the community but which are purely schools. Nonetheless, some new projects, although more modest, are realised at the initiative of local authorities. The French new towns also seek to attract higher education institutions - not in order to form district centres like in the case of schools - but for their regional and even national influence and for the effect they have on the creation of qualified jobs.

45. The English new towns have focused mainly on primary and secondary schools and their integration into the life of the district rather than on the constitution, from the very outset, of town centres equipped with facilities and providing activities assuring the town of a greater sphere of influence. The architect of one new town regretted this, observing that universities, for instance, provided an exceptional element of animation by inducing other activities: restaurants, cinemas, bookshops, etc.; yet "since the war about 25 new towns and 25 new universities had been built, but not in the same places".

46. In the United States the case of the new town of Irvine (California) - a town built by a private group with no State aid - also shows the driving power that educational establishments can provide in urban development. The group presented the University of California with a site in the very centre of the future town for the construction of a campus even before any houses were built, which enhanced the town's image in the eyes of the desired public - managers, engineers, technicians, researchers; service activities, non-polluting industries in terms of employment. The urban animation that educational establishments can provide is also systematically sought in the case of Welfare Island, a new town in central New York, entirely closed to motor traffic (garages at the entrance to the island, minibus service to the main street). School facilities are to be situated on the ground floor of high rise blocks (to permit high housing density) and located in relation to sports facilities in such a way as to provoke a large flow of children through the town.

47. Lastly, one of the essential motives behind the demands formulated by the inhabitants and urban planners with regard to schools is due to the scarcity of community facilities, both in new towns and in the case of the rehabilitation of old districts or of extremely under-equipped suburbs. The school has not only symbolic value - meaning that there is a future for children and their parents in a given area; but just as it is the first facility to be provided in a new housing area, it is also often the last to go in a decaying area because it is the instrument of a public

service which is compulsory for families. Other community needs - social and cultural activities - do not impose themselves as imperatively on the public authorities either because there is no legal obligation, but only more or less openly acknowledged social pressure, or because such needs are expressed by more limited minority groups - the sick, the aged, etc.

48. The integration or co-ordination of facilities makes it possible to use the compulsory provision of the school as a means of providing other facilities which would otherwise be constructed much later and perhaps not at all, in the case of new towns and new urban development areas. In order to be attractive, these new towns or areas need to offer a level of services not too remote from the standards usually achieved in the old towns; for such standards are disseminated by the media throughout a whole national community and are an important motive for the migration to the towns. For instance, the integrated centre of Yateley near London seems to be regarded by some of its users as a temporary solution, a lesser evil, rather than as a model of organisation and co-ordination of public services.

Part Three
THE SOCIAL POLICIES APPROACH

49. There is also a move to co-ordinate the objectives of social policies and planning as well as the operation of the various agencies involved. The co-ordination or even integration of facilities can be one of the elements which make for more effectively integrated social policies. Educational facilities likewise have new functions to perform in the context of these social policies, and have to change their usual mode of operation.

CO-ORDINATION OF FACILITIES AS AN ELEMENT IN MORE EFFECTIVELY INTEGRATED SOCIAL POLICIES

50. The attempt to bring facilities more effectively into line with social demand has led to a deeper analysis of the notion of need. This is not identical for all social groups and is not necessarily connected with facilities. The demand for hospitals and medicines is in the first instance a demand for health which can be partly satisfied by a policy for the prevention of sickness and action to improve living conditions

and give the public better information. These measures imply an extension of the conventional field of action of health care personnel and the intervention of other professional sectors, e.g. the mass media. The demand for schools is in the first instance a demand for education, which is essentially a demand for social advancement and this in the public mind has always been bound up with education. The fact that the progress of education does not suffice to guarantee this advancement and iron out inequalities has revealed the cumulative nature of social inequality. This has led to the adoption of co-ordinated programmes of social action, particularly in the United States, designed to deal simultaneously with the various factors of inequality and tackle on a broad front the problems of the fringe groups which are affected by this cumulative inequality [the "Model Cities" programme, the programmes of the Office of Economic Opportunity (e.g. community action programme), the New York Human Resources Administration, etc.]

51. The growing awareness on the part of the population and the public authorities of the fact that inequalities form a system which the network of public services is ill-suited to tackle has necessitated a broader view of social policies. This has two consequences: the various social policies, including educational policies, must be better co-ordinated; individuals and associations of users must be given a more significant role as they are better placed than the administrative services for ensuring that the means of policies are more closely related to the needs of the various groups concerned. This trend is reflected in the planning methods by the range of programmes co-ordinating the activities of the various ministries concerned, in the organisation of the central services [e.g. the Health, Education and Welfare Department (HEW) in the United States] and in the organisation of local services (local community service centres in Quebec, Canada; multi-service centres in the United States designed to co-ordinate the action of the various social services towards the users. It is also reflected in the very conception of social action which tries to abandon the concept of public or private assistance to the most deprived members of the community in favour of a concept of individual and collective advancement and therefore lays greater stress on preventing maladjustments, on co-ordinating the treatment of their causes rather than their consequences. It also puts greater emphasis on the educational function, which is a consequence of this concept of community development.

52. The phenomena of cumulative inequality are aggravated by the unemployment crisis. As they have little hope of escaping from their immediate physical and social environment through greater mobility, the most deprived populations tend to become more aware of the deterioration of that environment and its extreme poverty in terms of communal services and facilities

Their demand is therefore even more vehement for the maintenance of such services as exist - very often the schools - for greater efficiency in their operation, for their use for other purposes than those for which they were initially provided. In the municipalities the co-ordination of services is necessitated by the relative scarcity of resources and the attempt to make them efficient represents a further step towards a greater involvment of inhabitants in the re-organisation of their own living conditions.

53. These problems are not new but they are now perceived with a new awareness, due in particular to a feeling that the existing services are inefficient and unnecessarily complex in addition to being inadequate in quantity. It is realised that a policy of greater co-ordination between services is essential to offset the adverse effects of their over diversification and specialisation which are nevertheless considered indispensable and necessitate and justify their sectoral organisation. This policy of co-ordination also emerges as a valuable means of restoring unity to local community life and of getting the inhabitants to participate more fully, such participation being seen as an essential factor in preventing maladjustments and improving the quality of community life. The co-ordination and even integration of community facilities is one of the possible elements in this policy of co-ordination. It particularly concerns educational facilities since their provision is obligatory and they are those that cost most to the community and sometimes represent the only community facilities that exist.

SOCIAL POLICIES AND EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

54. Social policies tend to focus more on social demands in respect of educational policies. Consideration will first be given to these new demands and a few examples of co-ordination between the educational world and other areas of social concern will then be given.

New Social Demands in respect of Education

55. A certain disenchantment has emerged in the industrialised countries since the enthusiasm of the 60s and the steep increase in public expenditure which accompanied it. There is now less conviction that the progress of education is in itself sufficient to reduce social inequalities. The latter in fact tend to subsist in schools notwithstanding the successive reforms which have taken place. The objective assigned to the school of preparing for life in the community now tends to take on greater importance in relation to the main objective of knowledge transmission. The

"socialisation of the younger generation" function, largely advocated by Dewey and Durkheim, is less assumed by the family than in the past and this development has intensified the demands on the educational system from parents and society at large.

56. The time for leisure of young people has increased, largely owing to the prolongation of compulsory schooling which has retarded their arrival on the labour market (this is less true of pupils in technical schools where timetables are more consistent with working hours in trade and industry). The part played by the schools in the organisation of this leisure has not generally increased to the same extent. The expectations aroused by this increase in leisure among young people have been very largely met by private enterprise particularly in the consumption of mass media products.

57. The boundaries between the "educational" field which is covered by the school and the "social" field covered by the welfare mechanisms are no longer as clear as they were. A new field has emerged that of socio-educational activities, the "socio-cultural" field.(1) It corresponds to new modes of socialisation, to training activities seeking to bring "culture" within the reach of social categories for whom the school does not fulfill all its promises. These new activities are extremely wide in their scope and loosely defined and are more suitable for the publics for whom they cater than the rigid setting of the conventional school. They are staffed by new categories of personnel i.e. the "animateurs" and often have their own facilities in the form of youth centres, cultural centres, social centres, clubs, etc. This new field of activity without any precise boundaries, demands more from the educational sector (particularly access to its facilities) and at the same time reveals even more the latters deficiencies by taking over functions which the school has partly or entirely discontinued, i.e. organisation of leisure, initiation into group activity, revitalisation of urban neighbourhoods, etc.

58. The school is also expected to be responsible for new types of education programmes and to co-ordinate these with the traditional ones. It has been made responsible for the more directly functional types of programmes necessitated either by the development of social activities which do not themselves provide the relevant education and training and therefore assign that responsibility to the school (e.g. consumer education, economic and social information) or by the emergence of urgent problems with which parents are unable to cope, e.g. road safety training, combating drugs, etc.

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1) J. Ion, "Les équipements socio-culturels et la ville", Direction générale de la Recherche scientifique et technique, Paris, 1972.

Some Examples of Co-ordination between the Educational World and Other Areas of Social Concern

59. The increasing tendency for women to take up employment has created a demand for increased possibilities of child care and schooling of young children as well as for a co-ordination of the various possibilities that exist. The demand has been intensified by the tendency of parents to shift part of their traditional responsibility for the socialisation of children on to the school and by the feeling that pre-schooling is an important means of reducing inequalities in education and needs to be accompanied by active measures to track down and prevent maladjustments.

60. A wide range of programmes largely concerned with child care but involving a varying degree of educational content has been launched in the United States. During the second world war an Act of 1940 empowered the Federal Department of Public Works to make grants to school districts for the financing of child care programmes and thereby make it easier for the mothers to take up employment. This type of programme was resumed after the war at the level of individual States, e.g. in the form of "children's centers programs" and at federal level in co-operation between the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW), the Department of Labour and the Office of Economic Opportunity, which jointly worked out quality norms for federal grants to child care programmes (the Federal Interagency Day Care Requirements).(1)

61. In the United Kingdom the Urban Aid Programme of 1968 co-ordinates public expenditure on housing, education, health and welfare in "areas of special social need". Local initiatives, for example in Coventry, have also given high priority to day nurseries and nursery education /In Coventry under a "corporate planning system" comprising a limited number of priority areas of activity giving rise to co-ordinated programmes (Programme Area Teams - PAT)7.(2)

62. The co-ordination of services and facilities may also be designed to integrate the role of education into a set of measures intended for specific groups within the community. For example, the "Troika" project in Hanover (German Federal Republic) plans to associate three elements side by side on the same site:

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1) The Day-care Nightmare, Institute of Urban and Regional Development, University of California, Berkeley, United States, 1971.

2) Alberto Melo, "The Under-fives and the Corporate System of Coventry", Inter-sectoral Educational Planning, OECD, Paris, 1977.

- an educational therapy centre (Pädagogisch-therapeutisches Zentrum), comprising a primary school and a secondary school for handicapped children able to take 240 full-time pupils and a set of facilities for therapy; an extension is planned with a nursery school and boarding facilities;
- a children's hospital;
- a socio-paediatric centre (Sozial-pädiatrisches Zentrum) for early systematic detection of all types of handicaps and preventive treatment.

63. It was when the project for rebuilding the children's hospital was being considered that the idea developed of combining a complete set of facilities for prevention, treatment and education in a single project. Its economic justification is that the improvement in prevention anticipated from the investments planned would reduce expenditure at present required for the maintenance and treatment of permanently handicapped persons and would enable a greater number of handicapped persons to be reintegrated into their environment and placed in employment. As the various institutions planned in the project come under different authorities, i.e. the state government (Land) or the municipality or sometimes both, and would also employ several different categories of staff, an original process of co-ordination and planning was set up with federal government participation. To begin with it concentrated on linking up the various services involved; the idea of a co-ordinated facilities project physically associating their activities emerged later as a necessary or at least extremely efficient means of improving their co-ordination.

64. The school is also expected to be more effective in its role of transmitting social values and shaping the behaviour of young people, and there is agreement that it must be assisted in this task by other bodies in the community. The latter expects the school at least to provide a reliable day nursery and the programmes intended for young children emphasise the care rather than the pre-schooling function. To check absenteeism in secondary schools, it is possible to enlist the active co-operation of the community. For example, the Paul Laurence Dunbar Community High School in the United States (Baltimore, Maryland) asked mothers who had taken part in the process of planning the new school facilities to continue to co-operate with the school in removing obstacles of all kinds preventing their children from attending school regularly or taking part in important activities organised by the school, e.g. medical examinations. In this way parents are invited to take action first before the intervention of social workers.

65. The community may consider that a certain mixture of age groups is necessary, not only in its own interest but also to promote the specific objectives of the school. This may be achieved by pooling certain functions and certain facilities. For example, the school canteen may be used both by the school and the neighbourhood either at different times or simultaneously provided the dining facilities can be separated. One example is the Brickebacken centre at Örebro in Sweden where the restaurant is entirely available to the public in the evenings and only partly at lunchtime and a second example is the new town of Saint-Quentin-en-Yvelines (France) where the restaurant is used simultaneously. There are also many examples of the joint use of sports facilities, libraries, workshops, theatres and multi-purpose assembly halls. The pooling of facilities is easier where functions are less specifically educational. In its practical effects the social motive of greater contacts between the generations is bound up with an economic motive, i.e. to ensure the full use of facilities. In the case of the schools this is a particularly strong motive as the facilities concerned account for most of the public funds spent in the social sector, are the most widely distributed and yet are the most under-utilised.

66. This twofold aspect is particularly clearcut in the educational planning project for the Ann Arbor school district (Michigan). In each residential unit the school and its ancillary institutions are conceived as a "mini-system" designed to serve as a community centre, each having one or more main functions according to its location (forest and lake zones, business zones, university activity and research zones) and can exchange its services with those of the other centres. However, local educational planning was not integrated closely enough with urban planning to enable the project to take shape.

67. Social policies which include an educational policy e.g. racial desegregation in the United States, make use of co-ordinated facilities as one of their methods. For example, one of the objectives in the establishment of the Human Resources Center at Pontiac (Michigan) was to ensure that the implementation of the school desegregation policy (integration of six primary schools: two with a majority of black pupils of working class origin and four with a majority of white middle-class pupils would not strengthen the tendency for white inhabitants to move out to the suburbs. Accordingly the integration of the schools was coupled with the establishment of a set of social services. The project was not successful in checking the exodus to the suburbs and for several years the center has catered for a public largely consisting of blacks and hispano-americans. The rising cost of land in the suburbs and increased transport charges due to the energy crisis finally caused a reflux of white population into the centre of the

city with the result that the Human Resource Centre was able to fulfil more of its initial objectives.(1)

Part Four
INSTITUTIONAL PROBLEMS

68. The tendencies displayed by the various sectoral policies described show that those who make and administer such policies may consider the co-ordination and integration of facilities as a means of solving both the problems of their internal development and such difficulties as may arise when they are confronted with the objectives of the other sectors. In these attempts the policies come up against counter-tendencies due either to an effort by each sector to maintain its specific identity (and thus to erect barriers between itself and other sectors) or to the emergence of competing attempts at co-ordination and integration. Institutional, administrative and financial arrangements and planning methods are thus developed under conditions which are specific to each national context. They are applied more or less effectively depending on the constraints imposed by the usual norms for facilities implementation.

INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS TO PROMOTE THE CO-ORDINATION OF FACILITIES

Statements of Intention

69. An important initial element of any policy designed to promote the co-ordination of facilities is official acknowledgement of the importance of such a policy. The more obstacles there are to its implementation, the more it is necessary to secure support from the authority which wields most power in the provision of the facilities. These official statements of intention provide greater or lesser incentives (e.g. the "Chance to Share" circular of 1970 issued by the British Department of Education and Science; the circular of 2nd February, 1973, on leisure centres linked to schools - "Centres de loisirs associés aux écoles" - issued by the French Ministry of Education and the Secretariat of State for Youth, Sports and Leisure; the legislation voted by several States in the United States, e.g. "Community School Acts" or "Allied Services Acts") or may on the contrary be restrictive and emphasize the difficulties of integration projects (e.g. the French circular of 4th July, 1972, on the co-ordination of action regarding

(1) Kennedy, op. cit., paragraph 36.

integrated facilities). Statements of intention are sometimes based not on legislation or regulations but on documents emanating from semi-official planning groups. One example is the report on "School and Neighbourhood Activities in the Same Buildings" prepared by the "Working Group on Multi-functional Accommodation", an inter-ministerial body which is chaired by the director of school building at the Netherlands Ministry of Education and the Secretary of which is a member of that ministry. A further example is provided by the reports of the committees on urban affairs, cultural affairs, sports and socio-educational activities set up to prepare the VIth Plan in France or the report by the Swedish Royal Commission on the internal functioning of the school (SIA). The incentive effects of these statements is of course reinforced when they also announce special institutional arrangements adopted to facilitate projects and particularly when they announce special financial arrangements.

Creation of Ad hoc Bodies

70. As far as particular institutional arrangements are concerned, it is difficult to work out new regulations in advance owing to the diversity of co-ordination situations and projects. The role of the co-ordinating authorities must above all be permissive, i.e. help to remove any blockages which might arise from an unduly strict application of normal regulations or any contradictions which may come to light in a co-ordinated facilities project owing to incompatible regulations. This role is played by various bodies, e.g. the inter-ministerial committee for integrated facilities ("Commission interministérielle des équipements intégrés") in France, the Architects and Building Branch of the Department of Education and Science in the United Kingdom and the Working Group on multi-functional Facilities in the Netherlands. This type of body is generally responsible to the Ministry of Education which owing to the scale of its budget and the general predominance of schools in co-ordination or integration projects is the ministry most concerned in the general supervision of this co-ordination.

Finance

71. As far as new sources of finance or special financing arrangements are concerned the problem is whether the facilities are to be given priority at the programming stage or receive additional funds when they are included in a complex operation of co-ordination. One reaction is to consider that they must certainly not be more expensive than traditional facilities precisely because one of the motives for co-ordination is to secure a higher return on investment, through lower costs or costs not

exceeding the sum of those of the various facilities had they been provided separately. This is the working hypothesis adopted for example in France and outlined in the circular on the co-ordination of integrated facilities, which rules out the possibility of additional subsidies and if anything urges economies.

72. In the United States the Federal Department for Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) and the Federal Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) have also granted special subsidies for projects in which schools are integrated in the broader context of a human resources centre (e.g. the Pontiac Center, Michigan, was the first to be financed by the HUD and was at the same time the first project in this school district to be carried out in co-operation between the Federal Government, the State of Michigan, the county and the municipality).(1)

73. In other cases the additional incentive grants are provided by a foundation, or simultaneously by a foundation and a public organisation (e.g. the Mott Foundation and the Office of Education subsidised the Board of Education of Flint, Michigan, in order to set up the Wendell Williams Community Education Centre). However, this type of additional incentive subsidy is sometimes as difficult to obtain as the traditional sources of finance. The federal sources of incentive subsidies may be "creamed off" for the benefit of whichever local communities are best organised to compile the dossiers and follow the various procedures laid down by different Federal Government agencies (which means that although the available appropriations are comparatively meagre they are not always all spent.(2)

74. Loan systems under which the co-ordination of facilities is coupled with housing construction are likewise used, as in Sweden to encourage co-ordination.

75. There are also co-ordination procedures which might be used to achieve co-ordinated facilities even if these procedures were originally intended to serve a wider purpose. This is true, for example, of the French procedure under which contracts are signed between the state and medium-sized municipalities (about 35 000 to 80 000 inhabitants) to improve the quality of living. This procedure offers the municipalities

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1) Community/School, Sharing the Space and the Action, op.cit., page 32.

2) "The Funding Game" in The Day-care Nightmare, op.cit.

an institutional mechanism (technical assistance furnished by an operational group of experts to aid the municipalities to prepare a project) and an inter-ministerial committee jointly chaired by the commissioner for territorial planning and regional action ("délégué à l'aménagement du territoire et à l'action régionale"), responsible to the Minister of the Interior and by the director of land use and urban planning ("directeur de l'aménagement foncier et de l'urbanisme") responsible to the Minister of Public Works, Housing and Urban Planning ("ministère de l'Equipement"). This Committee approves the projects submitted by towns and co-ordinates the financial decisions of the ministries; this institutional mechanism provides an additional subsidy which makes it possible to finance certain costs which the ministries would otherwise have refused (e.g. the extra cost of giving a school a more central location and thereby enabling it to exercise the secondary function of vitalising the town centre whereas it would normally have been built on the outskirts of the town owing to the high cost of land). In such a case, extra funds are forthcoming in the shape of the additional subsidy and also because of a general mobilisation of normal ministerial subsidies which would not all have been granted so rapidly and simultaneously under the usual sectoral procedures.

76. **Nevertheless, the effectiveness of the institutional and financial arrangements especially devised to promote co-ordinated facilities very much depends on the country's general institutional context, in particular the general conditions for co-ordination which are created by the distribution of power between different levels of responsibility. Needless to say this general context determines constraints or, conversely, creates supplementary incentives and therefore considerably influences and moulds the very motives for co-ordination.**

CONSTRAINTS CREATED BY THE INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT

77. **Decision-making powers as regards facilities may be divided into several types:**

- technical: power to lay down norms in respect of needs, prescribe technical specifications, impose more or less mandatory models, and make or finance preliminary investigations;
- financial: Power to establish cost ceilings for different categories of facilities, determine overall financial envelopes and subsidies for these categories and distribute them between regions, localities or housing areas;

- policy: decisions to create facilities and locate, co-ordinate or integrate them with other types of facilities;
- finally, account must be taken of existing powers in the subsequent operation of the facilities once these have been set up: power to decide on the statutes of the co-ordinated establishments, to distribute service charges between users, to decide their level, to appoint staff and determine their qualifications. These powers are exercised at a stage which follows the actual creation of the facilities and their co-ordination and are therefore not part of this study but the anticipation of possible difficulties in their operation - the example of the difficulties encountered in existing projects - may have a very powerful inhibiting effect on the planning of the projects themselves.

The way in which these various types of powers are distributed vary greatly from one country to another and from one sector to another. They take the form of more or less mandatory norms, each being a constraint imposed on co-ordination. Without making a detailed analysis of these powers, since this would in fact require a study of the institutional context of each country, a few general problems will be considered here together with their incidence on the motives behind co-ordination and integration of facilities.

78. Realising co-ordinated facilities projects implies a more detailed analysis of needs as well as a more active participation by the various groups concerned: this is a guarantee for better subsequent adaptation of the built facilities to user needs. But at the level of design and construction this means prolonging the planning period needed and also implies disturbing the habits and models of the administrations involved. Situations of co-ordination are extremely varied and lead to the design of very diversified facilities: this may run counter to rationalisation and standardisation efforts undertaken by each administration separately (e.g. to reduce the time-scale or to make savings through the design of prototypes of schools, gymnasia etc.). Even more than in the case of traditional projects, carried out sector by sector, co-ordinated undertakings call in question the modes of operation of the services responsable for building the facilities and subsequently of the services in charge of running them: such undertakings enforce innovation, create situations of uncertainty as regards the distribution of responsibilities and may thus give rise to resistance to the challenge they imply of the existing balance of decision powers.

79. The technical specifications and basic list of facilities(1), defined at national level by the various ministries are often presented simply as guidelines for action, which does not dispense with the necessity of adapting them to local conditions, and not as imperative norms to be followed in detail. They are nonetheless often received by those responsible for their application at local level as if they were mandatory prescriptions which are applied almost mechanically without any detailed analysis being made of local needs and the ways and means by which they might be met. This attitude becomes manifest when local levels of decision-making are strongly dependent on the central or national administration (as in France, for example): local administrators are then even more sensitive to the influence exerted on them by their hierarchical superiors in central administration than they are to that of their own local authorities or of their colleagues in other hierarchical sectors.

80. The dispersal of powers and sources of finance also causes constraints for co-ordination: special procedures for the co-ordination of financing sometimes exist to ensure the simultaneous provision of different facilities in the development of a new urban area or the co-ordination of a facilities programme in a municipality; these procedures could also be used for co-ordinated facilities projects but their effectiveness is closely linked to the status they have in relation to normal financing procedures; they can not fulfill their objectives if they remain too marginal or too exceptional and have no incidence on the procedures normally applied. The example of a procedure adopted in France to co-ordinate the financing of different facilities clearly shows the limits of special co-ordination arrangements which remain isolated; the operational urban planning procedure applied in concerted development zones (ZACs) covers the totality of community facilities of all kinds to be provided in new urban development areas of some importance; the norms adopted are ambitious in relation to the financial means available and do not allow a phasing of implementation. All the facilities required are thus included in the urban development plans which are discussed between those responsible for implementing them and sometimes with the inhabitants. However, when the actual decisions on planning and financing are taken each year, the facilities provided for in the ZACs compete with those which are scheduled for non-ZAC areas where the concerted development procedure can not be applied. To overcome this difficulty and ensure that

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1) Systematic and more or less mandatory prescriptions as to the types and quantities of facilities to be provided for a given size of population.

co-ordinated planning of facilities is accompanied by a co-ordination of financing, a special procedure for the grouping of financial contributions was established by a circular in 1970; this is known as the "single budgetary line of the ZACs" ("ligne unique des ZAC"). This budgetary line, included in the budget of the ministère de l'Equipement, was to receive each year from each ministry responsible for a given category of facilities the appropriations corresponding to the provision of facilities in the ZACs. In practice, the various ministries have tried to retain their freedom of action and maintain their own order of priorities for operations falling within their sector. They did not feed enough funds into this single budgetary line with the result that the procedure was abandoned in 1975.

81. The possibility of going beyond the usual annual budget framework for financial decisions seems to be an important element everywhere for rationalising budget decisions even when these remain purely sectoral. Planning methods generally allow this: they permit lists of projects to be established for several years at a time, and virtually ensure in advance that financial means will be available for the majority of the projects even if their allocation remains on an annual basis; this permits a better preparation of the documents and other operations preceding construction, in particular purchase or reservation of sites.

82. To be in a position to anticipate future decisions on finance is even more necessary in the case of co-ordinated or integrated facilities owing to the greater complexity of such projects; the implementation of the various elements composing a project is dependent upon that of each element and the failure of any one partner, because of lack of funds, can call in question the whole architectural or functional balance of a project. But each ministry responsible for a certain category of facilities draws up its own construction time schedule and does not pay any attention to the plans for the provision of facilities that depend on other authorities: it tries to use its own means as well as possible to meet its own emergencies (e.g. ensure the beginning of term). Co-ordinated facilities projects, however, require more negotiation between the various authorities concerned; such negotiations must lead to real mutual agreements between authorities and not simply to improving the plans that each draws up for its own purposes. The implementation of a co-ordinated facilities project becomes a sort of contract which removes some of the independence usually enjoyed by each of the partners. Such mutual agreement means giving advance priority to co-ordinated projects whereas the assessment by each, individually, of his own priorities may vary from one year to another.

83. Furthermore, in periods of budgetary restrictions public spending on building is generally the first to be reduced since expenditure on staff can not be scaled down. The shortage of financial resources will not affect those ministries which normally have considerable resources at their disposal (such as ministries of education) as much as the others. Unless there is a very strong demand on the part of the public or by interested pressure groups, co-ordinated facilities projects, paradoxically enough, run the risk of being regarded as a luxury which circumstances no longer permit. The growing scarcity of resources may induce those who have most means to lay even greater emphasis on their own specific sectoral priorities rather than to take the risk of assuming new responsibilities by seeking more global solutions to their problems through increased co-ordination with other sectors of activity or other types of facilities. In a great number of cases it is thus apparent that institutional constraints or constraints related to financial procedures can not only impede the inter-sectoral planning of community facilities but even seem to contradict the economic motives which frequently accompany such planning.

A SYNTHESIS

IN THE LIGHT OF INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE*

* This report was prepared for the Skokloster Symposium, Sweden, 27th September to 1st October 1976, by Jean Ader of the OECD Programme on Educational Building.

INTRODUCTION

1. Whilst the quantitative problems raised by the massive demand for school buildings, which therefore had to be built quickly and at optimum cost, have become less acute and less urgent in recent years, educational building problems lately - at least as far as they are reflected in the activities of the OECD Programme on Educational Building - may all be said to have been concerned with the general question of matching the school building and its facilities to the school's educational function and the activities stemming from that function. In other words, all these problems have been confined to concerns regarding the school itself. Whilst recognising the importance of this general question, the study on the "co-ordination of school and community facilities" carried out in the framework of the Programme approaches the subject from a different angle. Its starting point consists of situations in which school buildings are associated in one way or another with facilities intended for other functions or uses. This physical co-ordination clothes or reflects interdependent relationships between the school as an institution and other sectors of social activity, so that the school in its various aspects may no longer be regarded as self-sufficient. Educational building problems will therefore be studied from the standpoint of the relationships, interactions and exchanges between the school and the various elements or components of its environment.

2. These problems may be grouped under four main headings :

- problems regarding the effects of these interrelationships on the location, design, organisation, use and management of educational facilities, but also of other facilities co-ordinated with them to the extent that, with the school, they are part of one and the same system marked by a certain coherence;
- problems concerning the emergence of co-ordination, the initiatives it pre-supposes, its underlying forces and motivations;
- problems concerning procedures for implementing co-ordination to the extent that, in such situations, the procedures specific to school building can no longer be pursued along more or less independent lines but must be fitted into more complex processes;

- problems concerning the interdependence between school building policies and other policies, and in particular policies for the provision of facilities for other sectors of social activity and environmental and urban planning policies.

Part One
SITUATIONS OF CO-ORDINATION

Specificity of the Situations Studied

3. Situations of co-ordination of school and community facilities are connected with a vast complex of problems concerning relations between school and community and it is in those terms that the situations, in most cases, have been studied, i.e. as specific expressions of these relationships or as the concrete forms in which they are organised. Thus in its studies on school and community, the OECD Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) considered cases of co-ordination of school and community facilities. However, on the one hand it found that it also had to take situations of greatly differing kinds into account and on the other it considered them purely for the light they threw on the problems it was itself studying. For example, it analysed the tensions between the tendency for the school to broaden its interface with the community so as to find new resources and new fields for action, and its need for efficiency in its specific function of transmitting a cultural heritage. For a clear picture of the reality of co-ordination of facilities, therefore, the scope of study has to be delimited and more sharply defined.

4. The situations considered here are defined in terms of facilities and the problems they raise relate primarily to the provision and use of facilities. Admittedly, these problems are bound up with educational and social problems from which it would seem difficult to dissociate them; but they define accurately enough the specific standpoint from which the situations of co-ordination will be considered, educational and social aspects being regarded solely as a set of variables and not studied for themselves.

5. The situations we are concerned with also need to be delimited in another way. In speaking of co-ordination of school and community facilities as a set of relationships between school and community there is a risk of arguing as if school facilities (or more generally the school itself) and community facilities (or more generally the community itself) are separate entities between which links have to be established. It is therefore relevant to recall the obvious truth that the school is an integral

part of the community and that school buildings are community facilities. But if co-ordination of facilities has now become a problem it is because a variety of services exist in every community each of which constitutes a different form of action by public authorities in the social field. These various forms of action split social life up into separate spheres (education, leisure, culture, health, social welfare, etc.), thus creating distinct and particularised sectors of action. The corresponding facilities give material form to this compartmentation. Not only are they separate from one another and governed by different norms and rules of operation, but they define their public solely in terms of their own function: a pupil, a patient and a member of a philatelists' club may be one and the same person, but the school, the hospital and the youth club, each of which tends to make itself into a sealed system, may very well ignore this. This segmentation of facilities also reflects a compartmentation of independent social action destroying the unity of the community or preventing it from developing this unity; it also introduces many factors of incoherence and irrationality into the use of resources for community action. A feature common to all situations of co-ordination of facilities is the effort to bridge this segmentation between the various forms of social action by bringing about a greater coherence between their resources (i.e. facilities). Whether explicitly or not, these efforts at resource level are linked to broader strategies of action designed to restore or develop greater richness and greater cohesion in social life.

6. Many of those who pioneered co-ordination of facilities refer to the pre-industrial era of our society as a "golden age" when school life was more or less merged into community life. The school of the American pioneer period, for which the whole of the community was responsible and which served the most varied purposes, and the little village school in France housed in the same building as the Town Hall and where the teacher was also the town clerk are two popular illustrations. No doubt they have a different historical significance but they perform the same role, if not as a model then at least as a regulating myth. However, nostalgia notwithstanding, this role has no significance unless it is recognised that the social conditions in which problems of co-ordination arise today have changed in scale and structure.

7. In a modern society, with its twofold trend of industrialisation and urbanisation, the public authority(1) has made itself responsible for defining and satisfying (to various extents) the principal social needs.

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1) At levels which may vary (national, local or regional) depending on the country or sector concerned.

To this end, society has set up specialised administrations, authorities, or services which are at the origin of the trend towards centralisation and segmentation referred to in paragraph 5. In the second half of the nineteenth century, for example, education and health everywhere became "affairs of state" and specialised legal and administrative structures were set up to manage and develop them. This process was no doubt bound up with the development of the social division of labour which led, among other things, to strengthening the role of the civil authority and often of the state, altering the size and role of the family and quickening the pace of urbanisation. This trend also promoted the growth of services and the functions defined by them and led in France, for example, to the creation of specialised technical administrations, alongside the general administration, and specialised facilities that were both instrument and symbol of this specialisation in social action. School facilities would appear everywhere to have been very quickly the most numerous.

3. In this "administrative/functional" phase in the development of facilities, still actual, an apparently converse trend complicates the pattern. Isolated within its own sector of activity, each service has gradually increased its capacity to meet new needs connected with the performance of its own functions. The various technical services (health and agriculture for instance) have thus built up their own resources for the tasks of training, information and dissemination of knowledge in their own specialised field. Similarly, and almost inversely, the school very quickly realised its social role although this has developed very unequally in the various countries. In some the trend has failed to shake the control of centralised authority and has veered off into parallel, marginal or unofficial ventures. In others, adult education which developed from it has grown into an autonomous sector leaving school to its own specificity. Lastly, in some others, the school's particular social context and greater autonomy has enabled it to change, often radically, and become a Community School. Before discussing Community Schools however, it must be stressed that the tendency for services and their corresponding facilities to broaden out onto fringe concerns and needs beyond their primary and specific function is general and not confined to education or the school. France, for example, has very little to show similar to the Community Schools but the appearance of socio-cultural facilities in that country after the Second World War, is an important development. One of its manifestations was the provision of very similar facilities by two different government departments - the Ministry of Youth and Sports and the Ministry of Social Affairs - which then had to bring about some measures of cohesion between their respective policies.

9. It is true that in many countries the school has played a more important part than other sectors of social activity in this trend. This explains the importance attached to the Community School movement in the Anglo-Saxon countries. Most specialists agree that a univocal definition of such schools is not possible since there are so many types. They may, perhaps, be adequately summed up in a phrase such as "the school serves the community and the community serves the school".(1) In this system of exchange there is usually no real co-ordination. The school provides certain services, makes itself responsible for meeting certain needs or caters for a public often well outside its traditional field. But it is the educational institution - even when, as is often the case, it organises participation by its users - that controls overall operation and it has sometimes been claimed that this model implies the risk of the school invading social life. In terms of facilities, the educational system takes responsibility for all the material facilities even if they are not strictly educational. The Community School comes into a system of co-ordination only when it uses facilities financed or managed by authorities or agencies other than the education authority and allows those authorities some responsibility in organising the use of its own facilities, that is to say when it really shares its facilities and hence its power.

10. Experience shows that the dividing line is sometimes difficult to draw from the mere observation of institutions and facilities. But as more projects are undertaken the distinction between extension and co-ordination strategies begins to emerge. Thus the use of the school for non-educational purposes may not be regarded as sufficient to typify co-ordination of facilities. This is obvious in the case of the fairly widespread and already well-established practice of the "lighted schoolhouse" (evening use of schools), and all similar types of use of schools by non-school publics, but it also applies when the school converts its facilities to suit non-school activities whilst continuing to use them for its own purposes. General areas - one and the same space designed to accommodate the same activity for use by different publics - and multipurpose areas - one space designed to house different activities - may be devices used in co-ordinating facilities but they are not, of themselves, a criterion of co-ordination.

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1) The term "is used to indicate the large and heterogeneous category of developments taking place within public education systems which aim to exploit the mutual dependence of the school and the community in the interest both of good education and the health of community life". Stuart MacLure in School and Community, CERI, OECD, Paris, page 13.

11. A final point is that the co-ordination of facilities may not necessarily concern the school. The Netherlands provides an interesting case in point. There, problems of co-ordination between school and non-school facilities have been tackled only recently but interesting projects and experiences in co-ordination of non-school community facilities have been going on for several years. The Agora of Dronten has already achieved international fame; small centres in the north of the country group, for example, health and leisure facilities, day-care centres for children, clubs for old people and local administration offices. For obvious reasons, only situations of co-ordination which include the school will be considered in this paper; apart from anything else this approach is justified by the fact that educational facilities in modern society are the most important community facilities in number, enrolments and overall investment involved. But the above example shows that it is not possible to analyse problems of co-ordination of facilities without going beyond the viewpoint of the school and without off-centering the approach from solely educational concerns, however broad their apparent coverage.

12. The specificity of situations of co-ordination of community facilities, school and non-school, may be summed up as follows.

They arise in contexts in which the common feature is a vertical segmentation of social services manifesting itself in both concrete and symbolic form at the level of the facilities. They may therefore be defined as innovations which by creating new relationships between facilities attempt to overcome the segmentation of services.

They involve a large number of different partners, i.e. the institutional authorities, including the education authorities, responsible for the provision and operation of independent facilities. From this viewpoint they may be defined in terms of "inter-agency" or "inter-service" co-operation for the implementation of co-ordinated facilities.

In them the co-ordinated facilities, in particular school facilities, house activities and receive publics unconnected with their institutionalised functions. However, the situations of co-ordination are not defined by these forms of use; instead they are determined by the new types of relationships on which they are based and by the rules for sharing and pooling resources which govern them.

Diversity of Situations of Co-ordination

13. What has just been said shows that raising problems of co-ordination implies regarding school and educational facilities as part of a whole extending beyond their own specific reality. After this attempt to avoid the optical illusion threatening all studies which focus on the school and set it against everything that is non-school, the next step is to identify the main dimensions of situations of co-ordination. This should make it possible to distinguish a number of categories for the analysis of these situations and also to show how their specificity also explains their diversity.

14. From the standpoint taken, the school is a community facility(1). This statement is by no means a simplification because a community facility is an element of a complex reality the material aspect of which must be linked to the community service it ensures. In physical terms, a "facility" may be described as a set of material facilities. But a purely material description is never adequate and must always, if it is to have any significance, be related to the activities which the facilities permit or are supposed to permit. And yet a material description is essential to the extent that the relationship between activities and facilities is never univocal. There is not just one kind of educational space, for example, or one kind of science laboratory.

15. The activities themselves point to the functions of the facility; these are generally social functions. This is not the place to analyse this notion, which is so difficult to define: suffice it to note that the function is related to a social demand, which, in turn, is related to a major type of need, of whatever origin. With regard to the school, we speak of the "educational function" or "meeting the demand for education", and this can be narrowed down further by expressing the function in terms of the services provided (e.g. teaching, documentation, physical training, etc.). But it is more important to note that each facility has both main and secondary functions: the school is not only an educational tool, it is also a place of "animation", social life, encounter, etc. In other words its secondary functions may consist of what, for other facilities, are the main functions; this applies to all facilities and it is often from this datum that co-ordination problems have been set.

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1) In French urban planning terminology it would be qualified as a "superstructural" facility - as opposed to infrastructural facilities such as transport networks, safety installations, etc.

16. To carry out its primary functions, a school needs to be administered, to feed its pupils during the daytime, and even to arrange for them to rest or have medical attention. It may therefore be said to have internal, or derived, functions, matched by specific facilities. The same is true of every facility because clearly what is an "internal function" for one may be a "dominant function" for another as in the case of medical attention which becomes a dominant function in a health centre. Here again there is a possible avenue for co-ordination.

17. A school, like any facility, is as much determined by its public as its public is determined by it. It so to speak chooses its public, or at least takes a "slice" from a total population, by aiming at a given age group in a given geographical area. The "slice" it takes does much to determine the size and nature of its facilities. This kind of analysis could be made in respect of all community facilities. There are centres for old people, youth clubs, and so on. But there are also social centres, health centres and leisure centres. This means that the "slicing up" of the population also depends on another criterion: the demand that is met (paragraph 5). This also applies to the school as becomes obvious, for example, when attendance is not compulsory. Below, but primarily above, compulsory school age, all families or all children do not "demand" school education. Paragraph 5 showed that co-ordination often begins by a search for coherence in meeting these demands but also by the recognition that the overall reality of a population is not expressed by a series of codified demands that can be attributed to it nor by the categories that can be distinguished within it.

18. Last but not least, all facilities work as organised systems. A school works to its own rules but also to those imposed by the education authority. Its educational organisation, the status of its staff, its curriculum content and the systems of administrative and technical norms in force determine more or less directly or absolutely (depending on the country) the nature of its facilities and the way they are used. In more general terms, the school is tied to the administrative system responsible for education. Thus all facilities have an institutional aspect which is apparent not only in their operation but also in their physical appearance. The services - in the economic sense - provided by a community facility are generally codified and administered by a service - in the administrative sense of the word. It should however be remembered that institutions are not always public services - they may be

non-profit-making agencies or organisations.(1) The distribution of institutions, linked with facilities, into public services, agencies or other organisations varies considerably from one country to another, particularly as regards the scale of government responsibility for social action in the broad sense and the degree to which political and administrative structures are centralised. But in all cases institutions act in the name of a community interest. These differences are important in studying situations of co-ordination since forms of co-operation (paragraph 12) may vary with the constellation of the partner institutions.

19. These various aspects of facilities are always closely related. Their solidarity and also their oneness are often expressed very powerfully in their symbolic function or in the image the public has of them. Every facility, defined in physical terms, is significant, that is to say it represents or calls forth a reality that goes beyond its material existance and takes its place in the system of codes and signs characterising social life.

20. For purposes of analysis, these aspects can be isolated to pinpoint the roles they play in the various situations of co-ordination, the latter being differentiated according to the relative importance given to each of these aspects, and the relationships between them.

21. The situations of co-ordination can first be differentiated according to the level of co-ordination. The first level of co-ordination might be said to be confined to the physical aspect of the facilities, the second to include their functions and the third to extend to the institutions responsible for them. These distinctions should not be interpreted hierarchically, but it may be taken that the level of co-ordination rises as the number of aspects involved increases. Incidentally there is little likelihood of a situation of co-ordination involving only one aspect of the facilities and the differences between situations will therefore stem from the emphasis that circumstances or a particular strategy cause to be placed on this or that aspect.

22. Situations of co-ordination also vary in scale. This depends on the catchment areas of the co-ordinated facilities, in other words on the numerical size of the population they are in a position to serve in terms

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1) Whether an institution is administrative or not, the characteristic of community facilities is that their operation is not based on profit so that the definition adopted here rules out a whole series of facilities, e.g. commercial facilities. The distinction between profit-making and non-profit-making facilities is more important than the distinction between public and private facilities.

of urban planning categories (e.g. neighbourhood, district or town). However, the various facilities' catchment areas may not exactly coincide. There are also situations in which co-ordination covers a network of facilities dispersed over an area, some being of the same type, and in that case the scale of the system formed by this network has to be considered. This means that the scale of co-ordination emerges sometimes as the result of a project and sometimes as a framework defining in advance the dimension at which the problems will be treated.

23. Lastly there is the scope or field of co-ordination, defined by the number of functions - the facilities' dominant functions - brought into relationship. The scope is closely dependent upon the objectives that are set. In a sense, it is equivalent to the range of co-ordinated facilities but in many situations the range of functions does not exactly correspond to the range of facilities, as explained below. It will therefore be taken that the field of co-ordination in a given project cannot be determined by a process of addition, based on the functions performed by each of these facilities taken separately, but only at the overall level of the co-ordinated complex, the objective of which is to meet a range of needs and provide a range of services amounting to more than just the sum of those of each of the facilities taken separately.

24. In co-ordination there is, in fact, a dissociation between facilities and functions; sometimes certain functions disappear, sometimes certain facilities assume new functions. A museum may be given a teaching function; a school or a health centre may find their social function furthered; a day-care centre for children may perform a vocational training function for young women, etc. Lastly, the function of animating urban life resulting from the association of several facilities in the urban fabric cannot be located in any one of them in particular. Thus, certain borderline situations which do not have all the specific characteristics of co-ordination have an undoubted interest for the study. Examples are situations in which school facilities having become redundant in relation to their original function are re-used for other purposes, or schools which make wide use of community resources in their teaching activities with the result that the school's facilities are used for reception functions, documentation, administration, and so on, and only to a minor extent for teaching functions; the latter are largely catered for in facilities, often private, conceived for completely different activities (work by craftsmen or artists, trade, research, etc.).(1) In these situations the disassociation between functions and facilities may be regarded as the

1) An example of the latter case is the Community High School in Ann Arbor; see Margrit Kennedy, "From Individual Projects towards City-wide Networks", paragraphs 176 to 180, Building for School and Community: III. United States, OECD, Paris, 1978.

SITUATIONS OF CO-ORDINATION CONSIDERED IN THE COURSE OF THE STUDY

(Those marked with an asterisk are dealt with in the case study reports). The main characteristics of these situations are defined in paragraphs 13 to 25.

Country	Location and Project	Opening Date	Urban Context	School Facility	Scale	Form of Solution	Level of Co-ordination	Scope of Co-ordination	Planning
UNITED STATES	*ARLINGTON, Virginia Thomas Jefferson Junior High School and Community Center	1972	Residential, old and new; middle-class; declining population	Lower Secondary school 800 pupils	Whole city 180 000 inh.	Compact complex	Facilities, functions and institutions Distinct policy bodies Unified management	Education (school + adults) Leisure Sports Restaurant	Co-ordinated planning (inter-agency planning committee)
UNITED STATES	*PONTIAC, Michigan Dana P. Whitmer Human Resources Center	1971	Mixed residential in industrial town ; large and increasing black and Puerto Rican population	Four primary schools - 1 500 pupils	Whole town 80 000 inh.	Compact complex in central city	Facilities and functions Single management of use by head of school	Education Leisure Social services Restaurant	Concerted planning (experts + citizen participation)
UNITED STATES	*BALTIMORE, Maryland Paul Lawrence Dunbar High School and Community Center	1974	Poor residential neighbourhood of a large city (black ghetto)	Upper secondary school	Whole city 365 000 inh.	Compact complex open to the exterior	Facilities and functions. Institutions independent Role of school as co-ordinator extremely important	Education Social and administrative services Sports Leisure	Concerted and participatory planning (Community School Council + citizens)
UNITED STATES	*WHARTON, New Jersey Community Center	1975	Residential neighbourhood of small town (distant suburb of New York); lower middle-class	None Old primary school closed and rebuilt elsewhere	Whole town 6 000 inh.	Single building (re-use)	Functions Single management by co-ordinator	Leisure Activities by social and civic groups or associations	No planning; empiric development of the project by co-ordinator looking for users
UNITED STATES	*MOUNT HOLLY, New Jersey Community Center	1971	Small residential town with historic core; fairly well-to-do middle-class	None Old secondary school closed and rebuilt elsewhere	Whole town + surroundings 13 000 inh.	Single building (re-use + dispersed parks for leisure activities	Functions Single management by co-ordinator Independent institutions as users	Leisure and sports; links with schools' activities	No planning; empiric growth of project under the stimulus of the co-ordinator Renovation of building by users
UNITED STATES	*HARTFORD, Connecticut SAND (South Arsenal Neighborhood Development)	1969 (on experimental basis)	Disinherited neighbourhood under rehabilitation; migrant very poor population (blacks and Puerto Ricans)	Primary schools (with eventually about 1 000 pupils)	Neighbourhood about 5 000 inh.	Small, dispersed facilities	Facilities and functions One single institution (permanent staff of councellors in charge of management + elected community board)	Education (school + adults) Social and administrative services Social-economic development programmes (work, housing); Cultural "animation", Leisure activities	Local project as part of the Greater Hartford Process. Project developed by team under the impulse of an architect; demonstration or experimental period preceded final design.
UNITED STATES	*ANN ARBOR, Michigan Mack School	1974	Two distinct neighbourhoods (individual + high-rise housing); poor, mixed (predominantly black) middle-class population	Primary school - about 600 pupils	Two neighbourhoods, totalling 7 to 8 000 inh.	Small complex including old renovated and extended school	Facilities and functions Different heads, including co-ordination for community activities	Education (school) Sports Leisure Community activities (less developed)	Pole of mini-system within education master plan; comprehensive project development by experts with wide consultation of the population.

UNITED STATES	*ANN ARBOR, Michigan Bryant School	1973	Residential neighbourhood; middle-class	Primary school 400 pupils	Neighbourhood 5 000 inh.	School with sports facilities	Facilities, functions and institutions Co-ordination by Neighborhood Steering Committee and staff	Education (school + continuous vocational training Sports Leisure Socio-medical services Community activities	No planning; Co-ordination developed on the initiative of the population
UNITED STATES	*ANN ARBOR, Michigan Community High School	1973	Residential neighbourhood close to the university	Upper secondary school 450 pupils	Whole city 100 000 inh.	Old school using resources (incl. facilities) available within the community	Co-ordination of resources (community participation)	Education (school) Economic, social, intellectual, artistic activities in the city	No physical planning; new use of school within an educational project due to local initiative
FRANCE	*ISTRES, Bouches du Rhône Centre éducatif et culturel "Les heures claires"	1971	Small, old town under rapid expansion; diversified population; increasing proportion of migrant workers	Lower secondary school	Town and surroundings 20 000 inh.	Campus along a central mall	Facilities, functions and institutions; federation of establishments with joint management	Education (school + adults) Sports Leisure Cultural activities Socio-medical services Employment sector important	Planning and design of the project by team of experts; integration objectives formulated by regional services and ministerial departments; links with urban development of area
FRANCE	GRENOBLE, Isère Maison de quartier de l'Arlequin		New part of large town (Villeneuve); diversified population; large proportion of disadvantaged migrant workers; high density development	Lower secondary school	District 10 000 inh.	Compact complex integrated into housing	Facilities, functions and institutions; management by single mechanism co-ordinating functional units	Education (school + adults) Sports Leisure Cultural activities Social services	Planning and design as part of the urban development scheme of Villeneuve by specialists from local agency with consultation of the population, participation of the Municipality and support of ministerial departments
UNITED KINGDOM	*YATELEY, Hampshire Yateley School and Community Centre	1966 to 1975	Low density residential area; middle-class; many employed at nearby airport	Secondary comprehensive school	Whole town 18 000 inh.	Unstructured campus	Facilities and functions; unified management under special committee	Education (school + adults) Sports Leisure Culture	Empiric development by phased additions
UNITED KINGDOM	CHEETHAM CRUMPSALL, Manchester Abraham Moss Centre	1974	Diversified residential area on the outskirts of a large industrial city; mixed population	Secondary school; further education college	Several districts about 25 000 inh.	Compact complex	Facilities and functions; co-ordination ensured by education authority	Education (school + adults), Leisure Sports Commerce Social and cultural activities	Development project carried out by local authority and ministerial development group
UNITED KINGDOM	LONDON, Cockpit Theatre and Arts Workshop	1973	Working-class district of large city	None Serving schools in 3 districts in London	About 500 000 inh.	Single building: theatre with ancillaries	Centre and workshop for creative activities serving a number of institutions	Creative activities (music, drama, visual arts)	Special project by the Inner London Education Authority creating a new type of facility corresponding to the needs of many schools and groups
SWEDEN	RANNEBERGEN, Göteborg Rannebergen Centrum	1975	New urban development in a remote peripheral area of city; medium/low income level	Primary schools; first 6 years of the basic school 400 pupils	District eventually 5 000 inh.	Compact complex	Facilities (commerce, church); facilities and functions (school, leisure centre)	Education (school) Sports Leisure	Planning and design as part of an urban development scheme; important role played by the building society (improvement of living conditions); inter-agency planning group.
SWEDEN	VÄSTRA FRÖLUNDA, Göteborg Frölunda Centrum	Under construction	District of large city with mixed, fairly dense housing	Upper secondary school	Urban area of about 80 000 inh.	Compact complex	Facilities and functions	Education (school) Sports Leisure Culture Health	Concerted planning by inter-agency committee by multi-disciplinary groups with specialised tasks. Prior consultation of interest groups and agencies concerned.

main characteristic and this magnifying effect permits an analysis which can be transferred to other situations of co-ordination.

25. One last category of differentiation seems important, although not directly related to those set out above. Situations of co-ordination vary greatly according to the strategy of action applied. This strategy depends first on the objectives set for the project and on the choices underlying them. Only one, somewhat formal, aspect will be dealt with here. Most co-ordination strategies stem from a planning strategy. In that case, they consist in the implementation of new resources, and the innovation constituted by them is engineered by concerted measures designed to control in a coherent way a large number of factors with a view to achieving defined objectives. But in this category of differentiation the planning measures may vary with scale. When the action is confined to a strictly localised project the planning is merely a matter of briefing and design. But in other cases, the project is treated as a component of a wider whole and planning may take place at the scale of a group of districts, a town or a whole region. In this case, more elements come into play and pre-suppose more complex planning processes and structures of a different level. But not all situations of co-ordination call for planning. Those that do not are of two types:

Those which develop according to an empirical process through which new facilities are added to a first set of facilities as and when new possibilities allow additional needs to be met.

Those in which co-ordination is primarily based on an organisation of relationships between existing facilities and/or on a re-organisation of their use. The facilities may possibly be converted or supplemented by new facilities. It is clear however, that when adaptations exceed a certain level, planning becomes necessary.

Part Two
EMERGENCE OF SITUATIONS OF CO-ORDINATION

26. The purpose of this second part is not to pinpoint reasons for projects of co-ordinated facilities but to set them against a background of various kinds of factors - features of their general or immediate context, political or social forces, and circumstantial aspects - which help to explain how they came into existence. It might be thought, for example, that situations of co-ordination are the endpoint of a linear process - the direct result of the definition of integrated policies linking together the action of different government departments. This would not seem to be the case at all: more often than not it is in the context of real projets that the various departments, agencies and authorities involved discover the necessary meeting points of their policies. They then come up against new problems that are badly solved, or not solved at all, within the framework of their usual procedures, and co-ordination of facilities appears to them as a possible way of co-ordinating their policies. Because of the concrete nature of the decisions involved, co-ordination projects are particularly effective indicators of the policies, intentions and ideas underlying them as well as of the confrontations to which they give rise. From this standpoint the initiatives that are frequently at the origin of such projects assume special importance as foci where these latent forces crystallise.

27. In this context, motivations is used as a general term for the broad background that is revealed, topicalised and brought into focus when projects are launched. What is interesting is not the psychological meaning of the term but the fact that it expresses the points of contact between the two levels which have to be considered in order to understand the significance of projects, namely the level of general trends, manifest in the social and idealogical evolution, and that of circumstantial and local factors, and individual and group initiatives at work in the emergence of projects. Motivations are therefore at one and the same time:

(i) ways of stating the problems of co-ordination and the reasons why they should be solved. Some problems to which co-ordination offers an answer are not new - the under-utilisation of school

buildings, for example. But projects of co-ordination state these problems in new terms. In the example quoted, the contradiction between under-utilisation and the general shortage of facilities for other social services needs to be underlined. Moreover it is because demands in terms of facilities have increased that this contradiction proves inacceptable at a given moment.

ii) pressures and stimuli of all kinds for the co-ordinated projects to be put into effect. They may be legislative provisions intended to facilitate the implementation of the projects or, for example, financial difficulties that could be better resolved in a co-ordinated project than in one of another kind. Historical considerations also come under this heading. A local community, for example, with experience of combining different services (school and library in Göteborg, social centre and library and youth centre in Grenoble) may regard a broader co-ordination project as a significant milestone in a long-term policy. More generally, a service such as education may find itself in a kind of impasse and realise that it can no longer achieve its objectives on its own. In this case, it may feel that co-ordination is one possible answer to the problem of carrying forward its own action.

iii) Lastly, motivations often take the form of justification. In that case they develop into lines of argument, are produced at the negotiating table, and are therefore likely to reveal themselves in different ways depending on circumstances, on the persons who put them forward for those for whom they are intended. This is not just a matter of opportunism - which could cast doubt on their objective reality - but an important aspect of the motivations affecting the action itself and of which they constitute an element.

28. This gives more force to the thought already expressed that co-ordination projects are not the linear outcome of policy principles (paragraph 26). All co-ordination projects are generated by their own dynamics implying not only dialogue but also negotiation - sometimes tense - between many different partners. To understand how situations of co-ordination have come into being, therefore, motivations have to be related to the various agents and their strategies. The sources of motivations are therefore just as important as the motivations themselves. In the end, their existence or at least their importance will depend solely on the forces bringing them into play.

The sources of motivations are varied:

- policy-making bodies at various levels of decision;
- departments or agencies involved in co-ordination, with special reference to the education services or authorities, a distinction being necessary here between administrators and practitioners;
- development specialists (urban planners, builders, etc.), with special reference to the architects who often play a major role in giving expression to motivations;
- future and potential users, and more generally the groups, associations or individuals which voice the viewpoints of the population, often in highly differing directions.

The diversity of these forces often leads to conflicting manifestations of the various motivations. The relationships they bring into play may be those of competition, authority, leadership, etc. Two further comments may be made:

- one relates to the activating effect of certain personalities involved not purely by virtue of their role in the above-mentioned structures but also as individuals who are particularly sensitive to the various motivations;
- the other concerns the importance of the models constituted by earlier developments (in the same country or elsewhere to which many of the agents refer; existing projects help to crystallise the awareness of the forces which, in combination, bring new projects into being.

29. The consensus necessary for implementing such projects is not therefore reached without tension and ambiguity. This has two consequences. Firstly, the motivations for co-ordination must remain alive when the projects are in use because their operation may frequently call in question agreements that are sometimes based on insufficiently clarified lines of argument; in other words co-ordination not only has to be created, it also has to be maintained. Secondly, the motivations at work in the implementation or operation of projects come up against resistance, expressed in the form of counter-arguments or "counter-motivations", so to speak. The specialised services stand out for their specificity; the education system, for example, may consider that a highly specific education serves the community's long-term interests better than a school wide open to actions and influences that are so varied that they must inevitably divert

it from its inherent purpose. More generally, since the services may rightly regard their specialisation, historically, as essential to their efficiency, they do not readily agree that this specialisation has its limitations and leads to contradictions (paragraph 5), particularly since it guarantees their authority and power, as opposed to co-ordination which is often regarded as a risk.

Economic Motivations for Co-ordination

30. The pursuit of optimum utilisation of available resources is often invoked as justification for co-ordination projects and economic motivations are well to the fore in the discussions and negotiations attending their implementation. They are generally based on awareness of three factors.

i) School buildings are numerous and under-utilised. Even used to full capacity they are occupied only 150-200 days a year, 6 to 8 hours a day, and are reserved for a small proportion of the population (about 15 per cent). This under-utilisation has recently become much more evident in an increasing number of countries where declining or migrating populations and urban renewal schemes have resulted in many schools proving too large or becoming empty.(1)

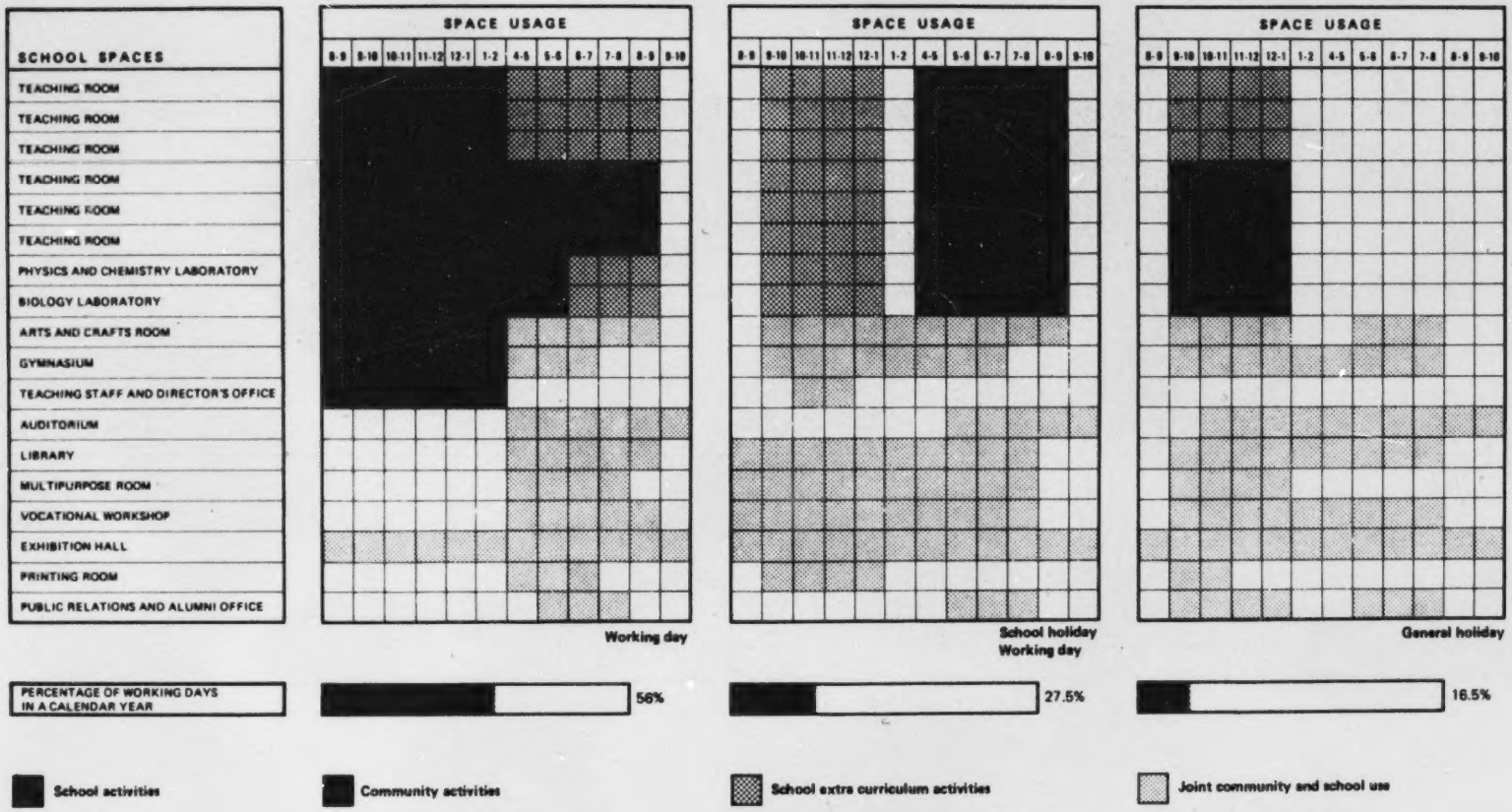
ii) Facilities belonging to different services are often similar or capable of being used for the same purposes (e.g. sports facilities in schools and leisure centres, kitchens and restaurants in different facilities in the same area, halls for public performances in secondary schools and youth centres). Although such duplication is not general to the extent that relative scarcity exists in many real situations, it is implicit in the schedules or designs of single-purpose facilities and this is why, with the scarce and slender resources now available, there are calls to avoid these duplications. Incidentally, these duplications relate not only to the facilities themselves but also to the services provided (e.g. different welfare workers attached to different institutions may be dealing with the same population), so that co-ordination may recommend itself as a source of savings at the operational level as well.

iii) Community facilities claim large areas of land. In cases where this type of investment, not yielding an economic return, is in competition with property development for land, the building of

1) Kennedy, op.cit., paragraphs 73 to 96.

ADVANTAGES EXPECTED FROM CO-ORDINATION IN TERMS OF FULL USE OF THE FACILITIES

Planning of an educational facilities project for the community of Hermoupolis, Syros Island, Greece



Source : **Educational Studies and Documents N° 26,** «Buildings for School and Community Use : Five Case Studies», UNESCO, Paris, 1977.

separate facilities, each on its own site, is clearly extravagant and more exposed to the effects of competition, one of the best-known effects being the relegation of schools or other community facilities to marginal or poorly served sites. Co-ordination is thus seen as a way of reducing the claim on land and of either making savings or acquiring sites of a better quality. More generally, in new urban developments or urban renewal schemes, the scarcity of well-situated sites means that not all the requirements of facilities can be met in satisfactory conditions with the result that, in most cases, facilities have to co-ordinate at least their applications for land allocation if they are to obtain locations to match their objectives.

31. These motivations may produce positions of principle, but in most cases they emerge in concrete situations when those responsible for public funds have to take decisions. The following examples, taken from the various case studies, illustrate this point.

At Arlington (Virginia, United States) the Board of Education and the Park and Recreation Department both wanted the same site on which the Thomas Jefferson Junior High School and Community Centre was eventually built. In addition, by pooling the funds available to the two departments the amounts of which had been fixed in advance by the local authorities, it was possible to envisage facilities offering greater possibilities than either the school or the recreation centre could have provided if they had been conceived separately.

At Istres in France and Yateley in England, the municipality has sufficient land in reserve and therefore naturally insisted that all the facilities should be located in the same place. In Yateley, moreover, the local community's resources were so scarce that it could not envisage building the facilities it needed whereas it was in a position to finance the additional cost of making the new buildings planned for the extension of the school suitable for community use.

Several cases of small towns in the United States (Mount Holly and Wharton, New Jersey), badly lacking in facilities, show that the reuse of empty schools at little cost was the only possible way of meeting the requirements for facilities.

At Rannebergen (Göteborg, Sweden) it was the building society itself - sole agency responsible for the provision of both housing and service facilities - that was the most vigorous advocate of the principle of co-ordinating and concentrating facilities as a way of reducing building costs.

32. In cases where there is a sharper division between departments or administrative services and where their budgets are more independent of one another, the authorities responsible for these budgets are less affected by economic motivations than when there is overall financial responsibility. The point is that, because of their specialisation, the services are rarely able to credit overall savings to their own accounts, whereas local communities are far more sensitive to the attraction of this kind of savings. In addition, the situation is often complicated when the scale of resources available to competing departments or services is unequal. In some countries, the education department, being richer may be afraid of having to meet the cost of co-ordination, whilst the other departments, with more meagre resources, are inclined to hope that it will bring them more advantages. Elsewhere, however, it is the poorer departments which fear that co-ordination projects may take them further than their funds allow and force them to make radical changes to their investment plans.

33. One general conclusion, however, would seem to emerge from these various observations. Economic motivations must be interpreted in relative terms - for several reasons:

i) Accurate instruments for measuring possible savings in terms of of investment or operation are rare, or even non-existent, as will be seen subsequently (paragraph 147). The arguments put forward in this field are still, in most cases, hypothetical which in no way diminishes their logical coherence.

ii) Economic justifications are more often advanced as selling arguments for projects, or as worthwhile wagers, than as guarantees that can be accounted for.

iii) Arguments of this type are more persuasive when expressed in terms of improving the services provided(1) than purely and simply in terms of lower costs.

iv) Economic motivations are sometimes purely a tactical device. Some local communities, for example (as in the case of Istres), see co-ordination as a means of obtaining finance for facilities that otherwise would not have been planned; others use the building of compulsory facilities - the school - to bring about the co-ordinated construction of other facilities.

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1) Grenoble, France: "in our programme the cost per m2 will be higher. But against this, we shall have a higher land occupation ratio... the services given will be incomparable... the facilities will be used to the maximum, operating on the principle of full utilisation". Quoted from "Propositions d'équipements culturels et socio-éducatifs", March, 1970.

v) Lastly, these motivations stem from others of a broader nature. The under-utilisation of school facilities, for example, becomes blatant only in situations where the scarcity of other facilities has become inacceptable /paragraph 27 i)7. Paradoxically, a duplication of facilities may be associated with their scarcity. It is also clear that the concern to save money on the purchase of land becomes keener the more importance is attached to having community facilities located on key urban sites - but here the reasons are no longer economic.

Evolution of the School and Motivations for Co-ordination

34. The changes taking place in practically all education systems has been such that everywhere the breakdown of the school's traditional isolation would seem inevitable. Reference was made to this development in Part One (paragraphs 8 and 9). Here the discussion will be limited to linking it to certain major trends:

i) Developments in thinking on the social role of the school which is expected to contribute to the development of the community although there is strong doubt that, by itself, it is capable of reducing social inequalities.
ii) Competition from the "parallel school", in other words all sources of information, knowledge and culture outside the school, and particularly the mass media, and the pressure they exert.
iii) The raising of the school-leaving age which blurs the distinction between old pupils and young adults.
iv) The change in the relationship between school and active life: on the one hand education at school and training at work are tending to affect each other and even to encroach upon each other; but on the other hand the economic crisis is throwing doubt on whether school is the best possible introduction to active life.
v) The reform of curricula and methods, causing the school to offer diversified options to young people and, to this end, to find new resources in its environment.
vi) The development of adult education and continuing education strategies which extend the school's action to a broader public and therefore prompt it to make allowance for new requirements related to working life, family life and leisure and to concern itself with the problem of continuity between basic education and continuous education.

35. All these factors lie behind co-ordination projects. In most cases they are expressed in two main ways: firstly, the increasingly insistent and varied demands made on the school by the different social groups and by the various services; and secondly, the awareness inside the educational system itself where increasing numbers of teachers, heads of institutions and administrators are perceiving that the school cannot achieve its own aims unless it changes what it does so as to relate more to what is going on outside the school. These demands and this awareness may, as we know, go as far as calling into question the school itself, its aims and its structures; they then generate resistance which may come to the surface in the dialogue between partners in co-ordinated projects both when they are being planned and once they are in operation: the fear of change, autonomist or imperialist reactions on the part of teachers, and the esprit de corps or institutional rigidity of those responsible. Going to extremes, one might even wonder whether co-ordination projects do not reflect, in part at least, the radical ideologies which see the end of the school as an institutional system and spread the gospel of the "school without walls". To go solely on the cases that have been studied, the conclusion must be that this is a false problem; in all the projects, school is regarded as a major - generally the most important - partner whose reality is not challenged even though its types of action may be questioned. The fact remains that all the co-ordination projects bring the school up against the need for it to change.

36. The motivations bound up with this change in the school are stronger or weaker and take differing forms depending on the context. In some countries, the favourable image and social prestige of education are such that co-ordination is purely a logical phase in its internal evolution. Conversely, in countries where economic and social problems throw doubt on its role and on the effects of its action, greater importance is attached to the new demands and the new social requirements. Also, depending on whether the social role of the school is seen as an extension of its teaching mission or as a specific function, more insistence will be placed on the fact that co-ordination gives education new resources that the school could not acquire of itself, or conversely on the development of social relations the benefit of which could be brought to the pupils in a new school environment. Lastly, depending on whether - in the particular context - there is or is not a tradition of the school being involved in the life of the community and vice versa, the changes expected of the school in its co-ordination with other facilities will be more or less radical. There is a fairly clear continuity - particularly in the anglo-saxon countries - between the experience of the Community Schools

and the projects of co-ordination and many of the educationists who played an important part in promoting these projects - the directors of Yateley and Dunbar are cases in point - have had long experience of community education.

Social Evolution and Motivations for Co-ordination

37. In all the projects, co-ordination of facilities is explicitly linked to the tendencies, taking different forms in different countries, towards the integration of social policies. As pointed out in paragraph 34 i), the school is no longer regarded today as the main instrument for reducing social inequalities. The fact is that the latter are cumulative, in other words in statistical terms at least those who are underprivileged at the school level are also underprivileged socially and economically. Many schools of thought insist on the need to tackle these inequalities by overall action and in many countries there are national programmes co-ordinating various types of measure to prevent maladjustments and to improve the quality of social life. In particular, in many countries where the education of very young children is a relatively recent development, such education forms the object of social action programmes in which it is integrated with family welfare action.

38. An important role in the motivations for co-ordinated projects is also played by all the problems of social segregation which the projects often attempt to help to solve (paragraph 51). These problems are not new but co-ordination of facilities is often linked with new approaches for tackling them.

i) Measures in favour of old people tend to be fitted into broader actions for integrating different age groups, and co-ordination of facilities provides a framework in which communication between them may be developed and where, in particular, the isolation of old people may be broken down.

ii) Action to help the handicapped follows a similar development, and the special treatment that the handicapped need would appear, today, to be less important than their integration into a community from which they often find themselves excluded.

iii) Population movement, often increased by developing urbanisation, creates problems in terms of the relationships between new and old populations as well as between populations of different origins. All projects conceived in the framework of new urban-planning projects (Istres, Grenoble, new French towns) refer expressly to this problem.

iv) In the United States, racial segregation problems have carried considerable weight in the development of co-ordinated projects. Some have come into existence as a result of the integrationist policy pursued in the 60s. The Human Resources Center at Pontiac (Michigan), for example, replaces four segregated schools by one single integrated school, thus offering a solution that is regarded as more satisfactory than "bussing"(1) which divorces schools from their community. Handled differently depending on the project (paragraph 52), the racial problem in the United States is one of the basic factors in all situations of co-ordination of facilities.

39. Other social problems among those to which co-ordination projects offer solutions could also be mentioned.(2) Those selected here are sufficient to indicate the importance of social motivations in the co-ordination of services and facilities. This selection also shows that those voicing these problems are usually the partners, people or organisations most deeply involved in social action: social militants and workers, community leaders and local councillors; the representatives of departments are generally less sensitive to this type of motivation. This is clearly illustrated by the director of the Dunbar Community School who is not only an innovative teacher but also one of the principal leaders of the black community in Baltimore. After being one of the most active people in the launching of the project she is now a member of the legislative council of the State of Maryland.

Urban Development Policies and Motivations for Co-ordination

40. Co-ordination projects are directly related to the trends that have marked the new conceptions of urban planning over the last ten years. Recent forms of urbanisation - cases in point are the new towns in Great Britain and France - reject the functionalist conception of urban development spelt out in the 1938 Athens Charter according to which the town was the juxtaposition of specialised areas, each of which was reserved for a specific function ("living, working, cultivating the body and the mind, moving about"). This conception led to the practice of "zoning", specialising and isolating each specific area. One is struck by the common

1) Transport of pupils from different communities to encourage inter-racial mixing in all schools.

2) Thierry Malan, "Inter-sectoral Issues", paragraphs 49 to 67, page 30 et seq. of this volume.

chord between this idea and practice and the administrative practice of segmentation described in paragraph 5 above. Today, on the contrary, the tendency is to look for a more overall approach to urban development problems in order to increase co-ordination between activities and services, and between these and housing. It reflects a keener awareness of the fact that the development of a town is primarily a social process and that planning this development implies a clearer perception of the concrete needs of the population and the latter's participation in the way their environment is developed.(1)

41. Those responsible for urban development (town-planners, planning boards, urban planning agencies,etc.) have had to adjust their attitude regarding community facilities. Instead of being satisfied to provide them as units of acknowledged necessity, they are coming to use them as resources contributing to the unity of the town and to the quality of the environment it provides for its inhabitants. They therefore tend to formulate for these facilities and vis-à-vis the departments responsible for them, requirements that go beyond the boundary of the specific functions assigned to these facilities. Accordingly, new functions are expected of the facilities such as animating urban life and structuring the urban fabric, which can be better achieved by grouped facilities than by each facility on its own. In France, for example, when the VIth Economic and Social Development Plan was in course of preparation, the three main commissions which had to deal with the question of community facilities (the commission on towns, the commission on cultural affairs and the commission on sports and socio-educational activities - the commission on education took a less positive position) strongly recommended administrative and financial approaches that would allow the development of "integrated facilities". This stimulus was welcomed by the agencies responsible for the new towns where co-ordination of facilities has become not only current practice but also a facet of the "brand image" that these towns are trying to create for themselves. Several projects studied in the United States (in Pontiac, Ann Arbor, and Hartford) are directly linked with urban re-organisation plans assigning to co-ordinated community facilities an important role in the structuring of the urban area.

42. Another type of motivation emerges at the level of the population itself which is showing increasing concern for the quality of its immediate environment. The decreasing mobility of the population, under the effect of the recent crisis, seems - particularly in the United States - to have increased the attention paid to the scale of facilities provision in the

1) Malan, op.cit., paragraph 37.

immediate environment. A similar phenomenon may be noted in the case of Rannebergen (Göteborg, Sweden). The housing shortage having ceased in Göteborg, the demand for housing now concentrates on the town centre, and the new districts on the outskirts are being foregone (40 per cent of available housing is empty) because they are poorly equipped with community facilities. It was in order to improve the attraction of the Rannebergen housing area that the building society strongly insisted on the need to build a complex of co-ordinated facilities which would present the advantage of offering, at one and the same time, a large number of different services improving the quality of the local environment. The frequently vigorous opposition of the population to the closing of empty schools often stems from the same concern. This is true of the French rural areas where the suppression of a school is looked upon as the approaching death of the little village; the government's policy of systematically closing down schools with low enrolments had to be modified in this respect because of the many protests. In Wharton (New Jersey) the population opposed the sale of the empty school and forced the municipality to appoint a co-ordinator to define new uses for it according to the needs of the community. In such situations, therefore, there is a reinforcement of the feeling of the population that the facilities belong to them. This would appear to be unrelated to the function of the facility: the empty school in Wharton, for example, is appropriated not as a school but as a material resource for possible new activities.

43. The appropriation of existing buildings or the demand voiced by the population that they should continue to have a role in the life of the community may stem from a different motivation. The old Mack school at Ann Arbor, for example, was to be demolished after the construction of a new building but the population organised a petition against the proposal on the grounds that it was wrong to destroy a property which bore witness to the past of the community and enshrined its history. As a result, the building became the community centre co-ordinated with the new school and new sports centre. Co-ordination may thus be linked with the desire to conserve, preserve or restore old features with a symbolic value or with the wish to build up, as in the case of the new towns, a common cultural heritage of which the facilities, seen as a whole, are a concrete expression. From this standpoint, the role of urban planners is just as important as that of the population when the latter is already there; anxious to assign to facilities an important position in the make-up of the town's image, they are often the champions of co-ordinating the design of the various facilities and giving precedence to their complementarity and general unity over the specificity of each of them.

Part Three
IMPLEMENTATION OF PROJECTS

44. Whereas the primary object of Part Two was to set co-ordination of community facilities against the background of social policies, this part deals with the operational aspects of co-ordination. Its object is therefore to indicate the processes via which co-ordinated projects become converted into practical reality and to pinpoint the problems encountered by co-ordination in the translation of concept into action. All these processes make up what is generally called the planning of projects. The planning of co-ordinated projects is far more complex than that of projects relating to a single type of facility - a school for example. The main reason for this, of course, is the fact that several facilities are concerned but this is only a difference in degree. Another and more important difference is bound up with the very nature of co-ordination; in this case planning has to deal at one and the same time with different procedures and different requirements; it involves the relationships between the various facilities as well as the design of each one, which is itself affected by co-ordination. It is this specific aspect of planning that will be considered in this part.

45. Since complex procedures are involved it seemed useful, for the convenience of the present analysis, to draw a distinction between two main types of processes.

Those relating to the more general aspects of the projects, that is to say their relationships with the elements of their context and their practical incorporation in national and local policies. The co-ordination of finance is an example of these general planning processes.

Those concerning the internal coherence of the projects and the translation of their conception into facilities. For these the term briefing and design will be used.

To understand these processes and the problems they raise, it will also be necessary to examine:

The objectives of the projects, since these determine the strategies from which these problems stem.

The needs to which these objectives are related and the way in which they are identified.

Lastly, the often original structures that the planning processes assume in order to develop.

OBJECTIVES OF PROJECTS OF CO-ORDINATION

46. There is a direct relationship between the objectives of the project and the motivations to which they relate. But the latter only show intentions or reasons for acting and indicate nothing more than general aims. Planning, on the other hand, implies operational objectives which determine the processes of planning. As will be seen below, objectives are not always, nor in all cases, wholly explicit. Not all the partners in the projects express them in the same way nor do they have the same conception of the links that exist or develop between their own objectives and, on the one hand, those of the other partners and on the other, the common objectives - in other words the objectives of co-ordination itself. In this part of the study attention will be devoted more particularly to this second category of objectives, which stem both from the policy choices made, more or less explicitly, in all the projects and from the consideration of the needs which the projects have to meet.

Educational and Social Objectives

47. In most projects, the social objectives are perceived via the educational objectives. Unlike the approach taken as regards motivations, it therefore seemed appropriate not to break up the unity of these objectives which moreover, as may have been deduced from what has been said so far, is reinforced by the dynamics of co-ordination.

48. As has been pointed out (paragraph 35) co-ordination brings the school up against the need for it to change. It is therefore to be expected that educational innovation will be an objective in all the projects and this is indeed confirmed by the study. But the scale of innovation aimed at may obviously vary considerably from one project to another depending on whether it concerns both methods, curriculum content, teaching organisation and parent participation, or more particularly just one of these aspects. Bigger differences relate to the importance attached in the objectives to promoting innovation in education since to these differences correspond differences in strategy:

i) In some cases, particularly in the United Kingdom and the United States, there is a continuity between the educational objectives of the school and the broader objectives of the complex of facilities of which it forms a part. In this case co-ordination is conceived as the logical development of a pedagogical model and its objectives as an extension of the objectives of the school. This applies to the co-ordinated projects created around a comprehensive school, a case in point being Yateley School and Community Centre. As is known, this type of school which, incidentally, integrates several types of secondary school, has clearly asserted social objectives.

ii) Conversely, co-ordination of facilities since it provides the school with a new environment, may be regarded as a means of favouring, cultivating or even generating educational innovation. In this case, however, it is possible to regard such innovation either as a major objective or as a pure consequence of co-ordination which then has its origin in other objectives considered more important. In the first case, it is a question of strategy of which the Pontiac Human Resources Center is an example. There, co-ordination of facilities is organised around the grouping of a number of schools into a single establishment with racial desegregation as the objective (paragraph 38). But at the same time the purpose of this grouping is a far-reaching re-organisation in which various educational options are offered to pupils and to their families.(1) In the second case, of which the Centre éducatif et culturel of Istres is an example, the educational innovation objective is secondary, and the project's intention is merely to allow pupils to use the possibilities of the other facilities to bring about a progressive change in the school.

iii) Lastly, educational innovation may be conceived as a condition of co-ordination and may in this case take the form of an intermediate objective as a step, for example, towards attaining social objectives which go beyond it. These projects may be compared in one sense with those of the first type but since the context is different, so is the strategy. In the case of Villeneuve at Grenoble, educational change being relatively slow in France, the promoters of the project have developed a breakaway strategy in order to develop educational models that are radically new in the French universe but consistent with

1) Kennedy, op.cit., paragraph 56.

the options of a socio-cultural policy with which the whole of the project is stamped.

49. Bringing social and educational actions into coherence, incidentally, is another major objective of co-ordination projects. It may take several forms. It may be thought important to bring about what might be called "vertical" continuity between the various actions developed for the various age groups in the population and then consider the project in a perspective of recurrent education. One might also wish to have "horizontal" continuity between the various actions undertaken for a given category in the population or for a given age group. In many countries and in many projects, for example, attempts have been made to co-ordinate all the education, leisure, health and social services for the handicapped.

50. In general, the co-ordination projects that have been studied endeavour to combine both forms of continuity. Even so, there are projects which confine their activity to relatively narrowly defined target groups which are generally the underprivileged minorities in the community. This applies to the "Troïka" project in Hanover (Germany) in which education for the handicapped is an integral part of a set of measures intended for this specific group. It consists of a therapeutic-pedagogical centre including a school, a hospital for children and a preventive testing centre.(1) But projects of this kind have not been included in the study carried out within the framework of the OECD Programme on Educational Building precisely because they introduce a cleft in the community which seems inconsistent with the co-ordination of facilities in the broad sense. However, in the projects that have been studied, differences appear depending on whether "vertical" continuity is a more important objective than "horizontal" continuity or vice versa. There is a significant difference in this respect, for example, between most of the English projects (such as the Yateley Centre) and the Swedish projects. The former give more importance to contacts between generations, to adult education in school whereas the latter set greater store by the need to co-ordinate all activities contributing to the development of children. This, incidentally, is in line with the conclusions of a royal commission which stressed society's responsibility to children and young people and recommended a broad basis of co-operation between all those bodies in the community which organise activities for this age group.(2)

51. The most important social objectives of co-ordination projects no doubt concern the attempts to combat the various forms of social

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1) Malan, op.cit., paragraph 62.

2) "Rannebergen Centrum, Göteborg", Building for School and Community: V. Sweden, OECD, Paris, 1978.

segregation and their effects, generally regarded as sources of inequality and obstacles to community life. Segregation can be defined in terms of varying breadth. In the case of the Grenoble (France) project, for example, one of the decisions in the urban development of Villeneuve was to mix the various categories of housing in the same residential unit - in contrast to the usual practice - in order to intermingle the socio-economic categories of the population. In this project, therefore, the co-ordinated facilities were to help this intermingling and this objective was taken into account in the design of the joint parts of the facilities. In Istres (France), the segregation that the co-ordinated facilities had to combat was defined more narrowly. The introduction of heavy industry in the Fos area and the new urban development was to attract people from other regions in France or from other countries and it was to be feared that communication and co-operation between the newcomers and the population that had been there for generations might be difficult. The Centre éducatif et culturel was, from the outset, defined as a policy instrument intended to prevent the formation of separate enclaves of different populations in the new town. In the light of this objective, the Centre was therefore conceived as a point of encounter located on the axis of the focal point of the future town and at the interface between the new districts and the old town. In some Australian projects (e.g. Thebarton) one of the objectives was to help to unify a community made up of immigrants of very varied origins and cultures.

52. In this connection, a special place must be assigned to the American cases where, as already pointed out, the racial problem has often been a major feature of the context /paragraph 38 iv)/. The projects do not generally claim to solve the problem themselves but, for a better understanding of the projects, it is necessary to see them against the background of the policies followed and the efforts made in the United States for over ten years to give a new sense to community life by eliminating racial segregation wherever possible or at least by correcting its effects. This problem has mainly been tackled, as is known, in the educational field and this is why in this type of project educational objectives are so closely linked with social objectives. However, the cases studied show that this problem can be approached with differing operational objectives. In some it is a question of fitting into a policy of integration and the emphasis is then placed on the need to bring together the members of the various racial groups in the community (in the wide sense) to take part in the same activities in the same physical environment. Arlington and Pontiac fall into this category, which seems to be the most general. In the other cases (Dunbar, SAND), it is more a matter of providing a

community in the narrow sense (an underprivileged racial community) with the maximum of resources and possibilities. In these cases it is less a matter of compensating for inequalities than of helping the community to assert itself and develop.

53. The importance of these differences which the identification of the objectives allows to bring forth lies in their implications as regards the strategies of the projects. This is not the place for an analysis of strategies but it is possible to look briefly at the way in which they affect conceptions and the choices they imply as regards the provision and design of the facilities. When objectives of social integration or communication between different social groups take precedence, the spatial organisation is generally seen as a way of favouring, stimulating and developing encounter and exchange between groups and individuals belonging to different categories. This type of approach can be illustrated by three examples. In Istres many social, educational and cultural facilities were brought together in order to increase the opportunities of encounter between the various publics they serve the idea being that each service or each activity might act as a "point of entry" to all the others. As an aid to this, the link areas and reception halls have been distributed widely.(1) In Pontiac(2) the accent was placed on linking the various parts of the urban fabric via a kind of street going through the centre itself and providing communication between its various parts. Lastly, in Arlington the encounter area consists mainly in the extremely large covered sports hall which, at one and the same time, accommodates numerous activities and highly varied publics.

54. But when the objectives are different and when it is primarily a question firstly of providing a community which already has its unity with the various resources not available to it anywhere else and secondly of giving it a framework in which it might find its identity and develop its own social life, the problems of communication and access are less important and the phenomena of appropriation of space and the search for a framework in which to develop a social life of its own come more to the forefront. The Dunbar Community High School(3), although it resembles the Pontiac and Arlington Centres in concentration of facilities and size of complex, it is unlike them in the intentions underlying its conception. Because the community it serves has a relatively strong unity of its own, the complex is designed more as a place where the community

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1) Guy Le Boterf, "Centre éducatif et culturel d'Istres", paragraphs 44, 65 and 66, Building for School and Community: II. France, OECD, Paris, 1978.

2) Kennedy, op.cit., paragraphs 63 and 64.

3) Ibidem, paragraph 65.

can express itself and as a multi-service centre meeting its main needs. The links between the various activities or the various services are in fact not very good but that is not in conflict with the objectives of the project bearing in mind the characteristics of its public.

Objectives Connected with Urban Development

55. The motivations set out in paragraphs 40 to 43 point to some other objectives. They are doubtless less fundamental than those which have just been described, since they have less influence on the development of the projects, and for these reasons the objectives connected with urban development will only be mentioned briefly. It should, however, be noted that their effect on the design of projects is not insignificant and that they give expression to a major facet of policies for community facilities - that of giving such facilities other functions than those stemming from their primary purpose. Thus all projects of co-ordination have an urban planning significance although this emerges very unequally at the level of the objectives the projects set themselves.

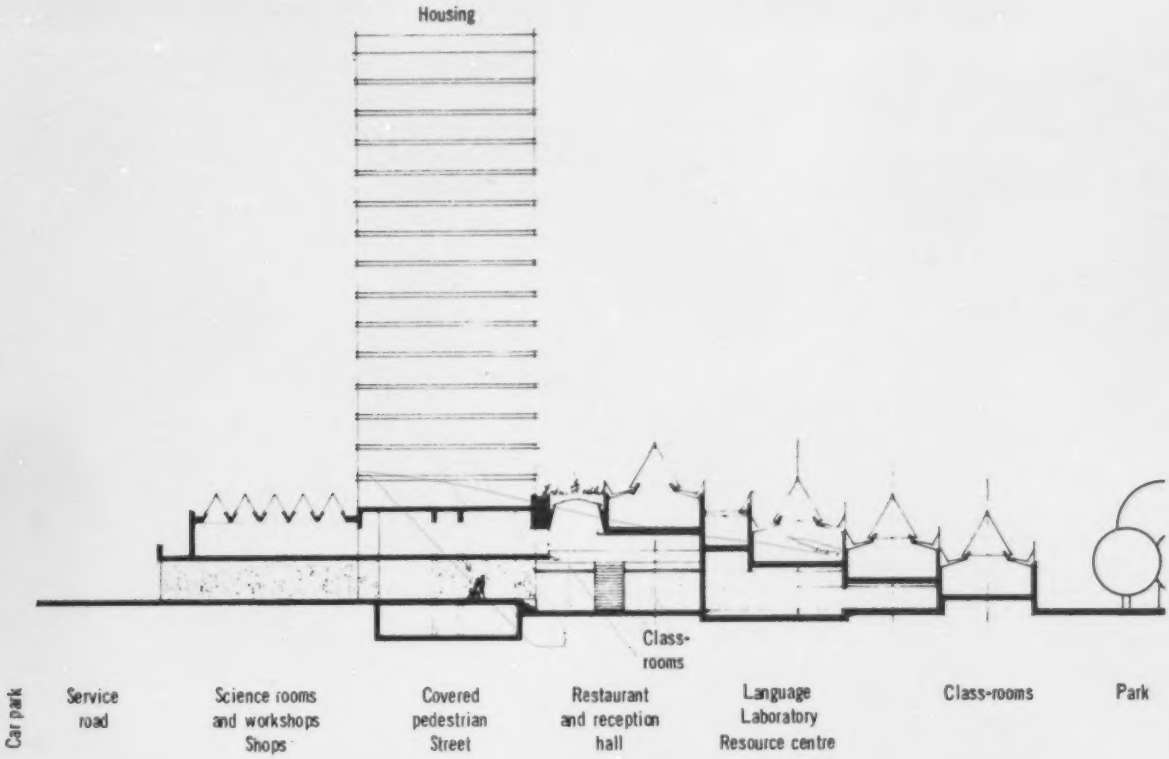
56. One of the first objectives of this type is purely quantitative in nature. Through the complementarity that is sought between the various categories of facility, the provision of a complete range of services to the populations concerned is generally better achieved than by unco-ordinated procedures. It has already been noted that this objective clearly dominated in the case of Rannebergen (paragraph 42). At Yateley, the project to extend the Comprehensive School by adding complementary facilities stemmed, initially, from the simple concern to meet the needs of the inhabitants who found nothing to do in their new residential environment and nowhere to go "beyond the garden gate".(1) However, this objective is only indirectly linked with the co-ordination of facilities, the latter being a means of achieving a quantitative objective attainable in other ways.

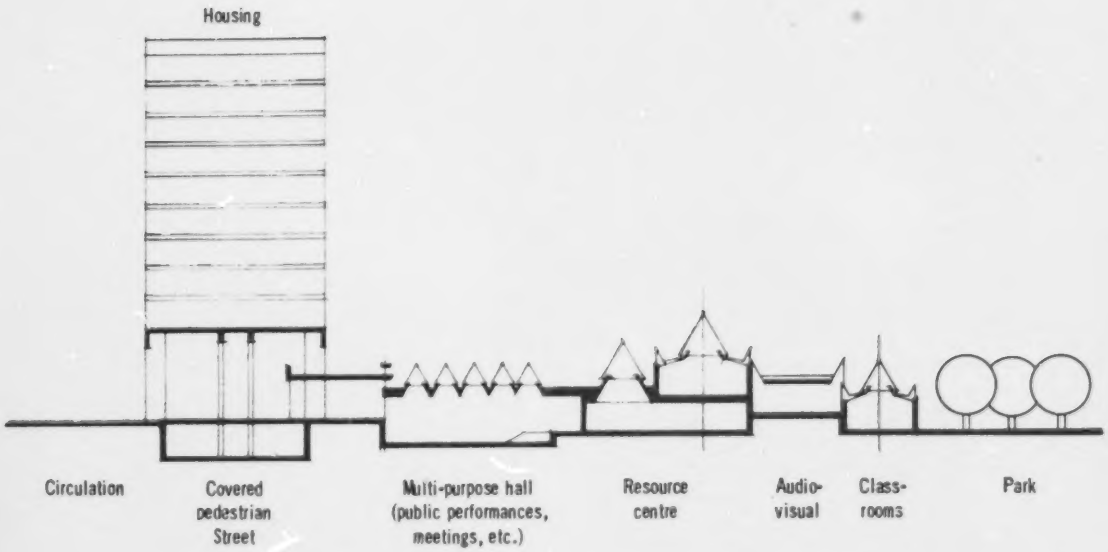
57. Another frequent objective in co-ordination projects is to use this approach in order that services may be better fitted, or integrated, into residential areas or into the other urban functions such as transport, commerce or employment. As will be pointed out later there is an essential complementarity between the co-ordination of facilities between themselves and their co-ordination with the other aspects of the town or the environment. At Grenoble, for example, the community facilities were designed

1) Guy Hawkins, "Yateley School and Community Centre, England", paragraph 59, Building for School and Community: IV. England, Australia, OECD, Paris, 1978.

GRENOBLE : MAISON DE QUARTIER DE L'ARLEQUIN

Two Theoretical Sections Showing Integration of Facilities and Housing





as elements of transition between the interior street serving the housing and the town park which surrounds it. But in the evolution of the conception of Villeneuve, this form of integration was thought of before the idea occurred of integrating the facilities with each other. It is therefore an objective that is frequently associated with co-ordination but which is not specific to it. Nevertheless, unlike what is suggested by the previous example, co-ordination of facilities helps to bring this objective to the surface and it is either added to the co-ordination objectives themselves in the rationale of a certain type of urban planning or else, conversely, when it is not implemented it is recognised as an important condition for projects to operate satisfactorily.

58. The objectives which tend to give co-ordinated facilities new functions are more important and more specific to co-ordination. This comes out particularly clearly in projects designed or implemented in the framework of new towns. Many urban planners responsible for new towns are faced with the difficult problem of creating in a few years what history has taken years to build up in old towns, namely urban life. The facilities and the relationships that can be established between them are therefore assigned an "urban animation" function. The object is to develop flows of users between them and to generate around them a certain density of movement giving urban life its attraction and richness. Co-ordinated facilities - and their co-ordination would appear to be the only way to deal with this problem - provide the equivalent of the essential features of old living patterns: the village square, the village hall, recreation areas, etc. It is easy to see that such an objective is closely related to the social objectives of projects, which would seem to suggest, therefore, that the built framework provided by the facilities is not sufficient in itself to create the social life of the town even though it may be an essential condition for it.

59. More generally, the co-ordination of facilities sometimes finds itself assigned a role in the structuring of the urban area. The examples of co-ordinated facilities at Ann Arbor (Mack School, for example) are the part materialisation of an overall plan to reorganise the town in which there was to be a network of facilities in the form of differentiated systems and mini-systems. Mack School, for instance, was to be the main pole of one of these mini-systems. Similarly, the Centre éducatif et culturel at Istres is designed to be the extension of one of the main axes from the centre of the town which it is intended should develop around it. But these two examples show a considerable rift between the development of the projects themselves and that of the urban development schemes into which they have been fitted. The point is that in both cases, it has

proved easier to succeed in mastering the design and above all building of the facilities than in controlling the design and building of the other parts of the town which were to give the projects their significance in terms of this latter type of objective. Co-ordination projects can therefore serve the purposes of urban planners, as illustrated by the more modest examples of Rannebergen and Grenoble, but they cannot shoulder the prime responsibility for achieving them.

Rationalisation Objectives

60. One last category of objectives for co-ordination projects consists of the secondary objectives that are however frequently asserted with greater vigour than their real importance in the implementation of the projects would seem to justify. It is for that reason that they cannot be left out altogether. They relate to:

i) making the best possible use of available land: in both Rannebergen and Grenoble the concentration of facilities was designed to ensure a maximum of green areas;
ii) savings in floor area and optimum return from the facilities provided;
iii) questions of simultaneity or coherence in the provision of the various facilities, or facilities plus housing;
iv) lower building costs;
v) more rational management.

61. These objectives, however, are different from the previous ones. In particular there are no social forces behind them. They are more in the way of benefits expected of co-ordination. Whilst they may affect the way projects are carried out they arise primarily, as has already been shown in paragraph 33, in support of arguments calculated to sway decisions. They also relate more to the feasibility of projects rather than to their strategy. On that basis they should be regarded as more in the nature of financial, spatial or administrative constraints and not as true objectives. Nevertheless, as will be shown in Part Four, they enable the effective use of facilities to be studied and certain benefits or difficulties in facilities co-ordination to be gauged.

Co-ordination of Objectives

62. The identification of the objectives of co-ordination projects, as set out above, does not explain how these objectives are perceived and

defined by the various partners and yet the process is extremely important and very difficult. As was shown in Part One, each service embarking on a co-ordination venture generally has a clear idea of its own specific objectives defined as part of its sectoral action. A first type of difficulty therefore exists in terms of the possible competition between these various sectoral objectives the compatibility of which is not self-evident, primarily because each partner finds it hard to see beyond his own standpoint and take into account the objectives of the others. A second type of difficulty is in the definition of the overall objectives - those assigned to co-ordination itself and outlined in paragraphs 47 to 59. The point is that these objectives go beyond the individual objectives of the various partners and the latter have to resign themselves to changing or adjusting their own objectives to make them fit into a broader perspective. The education authorities, for example, may tend to strive for educational innovation for its own sake without taking any exact measure of its social effect, whilst those responsible in a community, more keenly aware of the importance of social action, may not realize the importance of the technical conditions necessary for the pursuit of educational objectives. Similarly, specialists in youth activities may attach only secondary importance to improving relations between the generations. A last example, occurring fairly frequently in the various projects, is that the role of co-ordinated facilities in urban development and the urban planning dimension of co-ordination are rarely regarded as essential by the partners other than the architects and urban planners and are often treated as superadded objectives to which the representatives of the various services agree without really adhering to them. From all the cases studied, therefore, one general conclusion can be drawn: the various partners involved in co-ordination projects must devote enough time and effort to the discussion, clarification and formulation of their objectives.

63. The importance of clarification and exchanges, an aspect of the work which may not seem to be a very useful investment to some people, is clear from certain comments that can be made as a result of the case studies. In the process of planning the projects there is a distinct gap between the two levels at which the discussion of objectives takes place. At the first level, the discussion consists mainly of putting forward arguments, exchanging views and stating intentions; when the motivations for co-ordination are strong enough and the enthusiasm of the partners is sufficiently great - which is frequently the case since everyone has the feeling of doing pioneer work - it is easy to reach agreement on overall objectives. At the second level, however, when it is a question of moving

from these objectives to the decisions that are necessary regarding the design of the facilities or the future organisation of their operation, differences reappear and the quickly-reached agreements may be called in question. The decisions that have to be taken, for example, on the degree of openness of the school's facilities and on the allocation of responsibilities as regards maintenance or management (but also on more detailed questions such as the standard of equipment in a multi-purpose hall for meetings and public performances or the distribution of access points to the various services) frequently re-open the debate on the objective of the project and bring to the surface in concrete terms, differences in the way they are perceived.

64. The debate on objectives is a continuous process which must not cease once the planning of the projects is complete. It frequently recurs in day-to-day operation. A first reason is that objectives are liable to change to cope with new situations. At Istres, for example, the fact that the new town centre to which the Centre éducatif et culturel was to be closely linked has not been built, has led those responsible to modify their strategy of action so as to decentralise it towards the peripheral districts and the old town centre. In Pontiac, one of the objectives was to intermingle the various activities and in particular the activities of the social services and those of education. But with the recent employment crisis, there has been a considerable increase in visits to the centre by the unemployed, whose number and behaviour proved incompatible with the satisfactory conduct of school activities. The employment bureau, which was next to the school, therefore had to be moved for lack of any alternative solution to meet an unforeseen situation. In addition, when objectives are converted into action, certain difficulties show that they have not been completely worked out at the planning stage. At Grenoble, for example, conflict arose between the audio-visual unit and the education unit when it was a question of organising the use of the television studio and the engineers' time in practical terms. It was then found that the teachers and the audio-visual specialists did not have the same conception of the objectives they believed they pursued jointly. Their differences of opinion regarding the sharing of the use of the audio-visual facilities between education and activities for the local population stemmed from this misunderstanding.

65. An imbalance between partners may also falsify the definition of objectives. This becomes clear, for example, when commercial partners are associated in co-ordination projects with partners such as those discussed so far and who have no profit-making aims. But the imbalance also frequently surfaces as between the education sector - which is

generally and by far the best-provided of the partners and enjoys greater power of initiative - and the other sectors of social service or action. In England, for example, the generosity shown by the school towards the small county libraries that are often associated with it in co-ordinated projects could, it has been noted, give rise to a paternal type of relationship leaving little scope for the specific objectives of the weaker sector to be expressed. There may therefore be a danger, if insufficient thought is given to the objectives of co-ordinated projects, that co-ordination may help to consolidate those of the most powerful or highly-reputed partner whose specific objectives may be mistaken for those of co-ordination.

66. A last remark, bringing this consideration of the problems of objectives to a close, is that it is often pointless to hope for complete agreement to be reached and maintained between all the partners. It might even be said that the debate on the objectives between the various partners who have agreed to pool their resources and to work together, is more important than any precarious harmony. The tensions that always persist between the many different objectives, in spite of the compromises reached in decisions affecting the design of the facilities or their future operation, are not necessarily negative. Firstly, they give expression to one of the major virtues of the co-ordination of facilities which is to force each partner and each service to discover in practical terms the different objectives of the other partners and thus to situate their own action. They also reflect the fact that some objectives can be attained only by deference to opposing or differing objectives. In several projects, for example, it is clear that social segregation cannot be combatted by promoting communication between the groups unless these differing groups are given opportunities to assert themselves and their specific needs.

STUDY OF NEEDS

67. The objectives of projects are generally expressed, as has been shown above, in terms of answers to situations. This implies that they relate to needs that are identifiable in these situations. In addition, the analysis of motivations for co-ordinating facilities (in Part Two) brought out the kinds of demand and general types of need calling for new approaches as regards facilities: new demands made on the school by the various social groups (paragraph 35), the demands of the population

regarding the quality of its environment (paragraphs 42 and 43), etc. In most cases, the partners involved in the implementation of the projects have, through their experience and social commitment, a relatively keen awareness of these general needs which they convey in formulating objectives or making proposals. It may, however, be wondered - when it comes to putting a precise project into effect requiring concrete decisions on the resources to be provided and in particular on the facilities to build - whether this general awareness is sufficient and whether it should not be supplemented, refined or even verified by an analysis of concrete needs as they are likely to emerge among the users of the facilities to be provided. The purpose of the following paragraphs is to consider the extent to which such analyses of needs may prove necessary in planning projects of co-ordinated facilities and the problems involved in making such analyses. From the case studies carried out, however, it may be remarked that these analyses have been given only secondary, or even marginal, importance in the preparation of the projects and the question arises of whether it is sufficient to give them this minor position.

Study of Needs - a Necessity

68. As has been shown in Part One (paragraphs 5, 7, 15 and 17) community facilities as defined by the responsible departments or authorities offer themselves as ready-made answers to major types of need codified by the use and operation of their institutions. To the extent that the co-ordination of facilities attempts to bridge the sectoral divisions arising out of this state of affairs and demonstrates that new functions have to be performed by community facilities (paragraphs 8, 12, 23 and 24), it challenges this a priori definition of needs and of the services apt to meet them. Co-ordination situations show that the habitual operation of the services determines the needs and channels the expression of the latter according to the answers they offer. In these situations an attempt is made to reverse this trend so as to work out the answers in the light of needs and satisfy those which are disregarded because of the sectoral division of the services.

69. Another disadvantage of normal practices as regards facilities planning is to confuse needs with demands. When a community asks for a school, a day-nursery or any other facility is it really expressing its needs? is it really possible to speak of the need for school or only of the need for education or social promotion for young people? Questions like these call for more complex analysis that cannot possibly be dealt with here and regarding which it should merely be noted that the demand

for facilities covers needs that are little known and often difficult to express. Two further comments, linked with this notion, need to be made. The first is that it is often supply that creates demand. When a community asks for a day-nursery, for example, it is because this traditional solution to the problem of looking after young children seems to be the only possible one or the only one which the authorities are offering at a given moment. Recent experiences, however, have shown that it is possible to meet this need of working mothers in other ways and by other types of service. The second comment is that, conversely, providing a service is not the same as providing a facility although, in the usual practice, the two things are merged. A school building is automatically linked with the education service and a medical centre with the health service. But in co-ordination it would appear possible to provide facilities without any narrow definition in advance of the type of service that will be provided in them. Facilities may then appear as means of causing needs to emerge and as a framework in which these needs may be met by activities not specified with any precision in the design of the facilities. This boils down to giving precedence to the user's viewpoint as opposed to the conventional approaches in which the facilities, in determining the activities, also determine needs.

70. In actual fact, when it is a question of designing the facilities of a co-ordinated complex, reference to the real needs of future users becomes more specific. Each type of facility in the complex is governed by norms the purposes of which, inter alia, is to ensure that what is necessary is in fact provided. But in the case of co-ordination "what is needed" is still more difficult to define than when a facility is being built in isolation. What type of school facility lends itself best to shared use between school and community? what form should the facilities for a youth centre take to be suitable for use by different publics? From the various types of facilities, these questions could also extend to the complex grouping the facilities. They cannot be answered without reference to what is expected of the various facilities by the people for whom they are provided. These expectations therefore need to be explored.

71. Lastly it is clear, that even more than in the design of a given type of facility - a school for example - the design of a set of co-ordinated facilities comes up against the age-old conflict between the greater number of needs to be met and the necessary restrictions on the resources available. This means that priorities have to be set which implies a knowledge of the various demands and needs in order to put them into some sort of order as an aid to decision-making. In addition a

co-ordinated set of facilities is, in a way, a constellation of answers to needs. In order to establish what is the best possible constellation in a concrete situation it is necessary to have as broad a knowledge as possible of the various needs and the relative importance to be attached to each of them.

Different Approaches to Needs

72. In practically every country, most of the departments responsible for the various types of facility have found that they had to define the quantitative relationships between the type and size of the facilities provided and the number of people they were intended to serve. This norms approach to needs implies establishing a zone of influence (or a catchment area) for each type of facility and, conversely, defining which types of facilities should be provided on the basis of a given or anticipated population. The education authorities are generally the most rigorous in these approaches in establishing school networks or school maps - the basic tools for distributing available resources in the light of the needs that have to be met. There are rarely maps for the other facilities but many services work out distribution scales for their resources in relation to the populations to be served. In addition studies are carried out in most countries in order to bring together information on the approaches of the various departments and to define all the facilities needed by a given population. These overall norms may be drawn up by the authorities responsible for new towns, as in England, or by the local authorities, as in the case of Göteborg in Sweden where the municipality has developed a working tool of this kind for its own planning purposes to act as a basis for its co-ordination of facilities policy.

73. The limitations on such an approach are twofold: it remains quantitative and relates only to the number of facilities of a given type; in addition it presupposes, as has already been said (paragraphs 68 and 69), that the types of facilities provided correspond to real needs and therefore predetermine the anwers to those needs. But the approach would nevertheless appear to be an essential basis for co-ordination. In view of the way in which resources are generally allocated, it is in fact the only way of deciding what resources are available for the facilities in a given area. They are frequently used, for example, as a basis for measuring the shortfall of facilities in a particular area compared with what is officially recognised as necessary. They also serve to determine what facilities may be

EXAMPLE OF NATIONAL NORMS FOR THE PROVISION OF FACILITIES - FRANCE

Table summarising Circular N° SG 14 731 of 26th December, 1970 (Prime Minister's Office);
Provision of public sector buildings in concerted development zones ("zones d'aménagement concerté - ZAC")

Size of zone in number of housing units (one unit = on average 3.5 inhabitants)	SCHOOL FACILITIES (Number and total enrolment capacity)						SPORTS FACILITIES				SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES				HEALTH AND SOCIAL SERVICES FACILITIES (number and total area in m2)				
	Nursery schools	Primary schools	Special education (special classes)	Collèges d'enseignement secondaire - CES Lower secondary schools	Lycées - upper secondary schools (3-year courses)(1)	Collèges d'enseignement technique - CET Technical/vocational schools(1)	Playing grounds and sports fields (number and total area in m2)	Gymnasia type A' 20 x 15m (number)	Gymnasia type B 40 x 20m (number)	Evolutionary sports complexes(2)	Youth(1) or leisure centres (number and total area in m2)	Youth clubs (number and total area in m2)(3)	Locaux collectifs résidentiels - LCR Residential community premises for socio-cultural and/or socio-medical purposes (total area in m2)(3)	Libraries(1) (number and total area in m2)	Crèches	Infant-care centres	Social centres	Health centres	Nurseries
500	1 (80)	1 (150)					1 (3 000)	1					150						
600	1 (160)	1 (300)					1 (6 000)	2			1 (150)		300						
900	1 (160) 1 (80)	1 (150) 1 (300)					1 (9 000)	3 or 1	+1				450						
1 250	2 (320)	2 (600)	2 (30)	1 (600)			1 (20 000)			1	1 (300)	1 (150)	475	1 (300)	1 (140)	1 (230)	1 (1 160)		
2 500				1 (1 200)		1 (216)	2 (40 000)			2		2 (300)	950	1 (500)					
3 750				2 (1 800)	1 (420)	1 (324)	3 (60 000)			3	1 (600)	3 (600)	1 275	1 (700)					
5 000				2 (2 400)	1 (900)	1 (432)	4 (80 000)			4		4 (900)	1 600	1 (1 000)		1 (276)		1 (696)	1 (690)

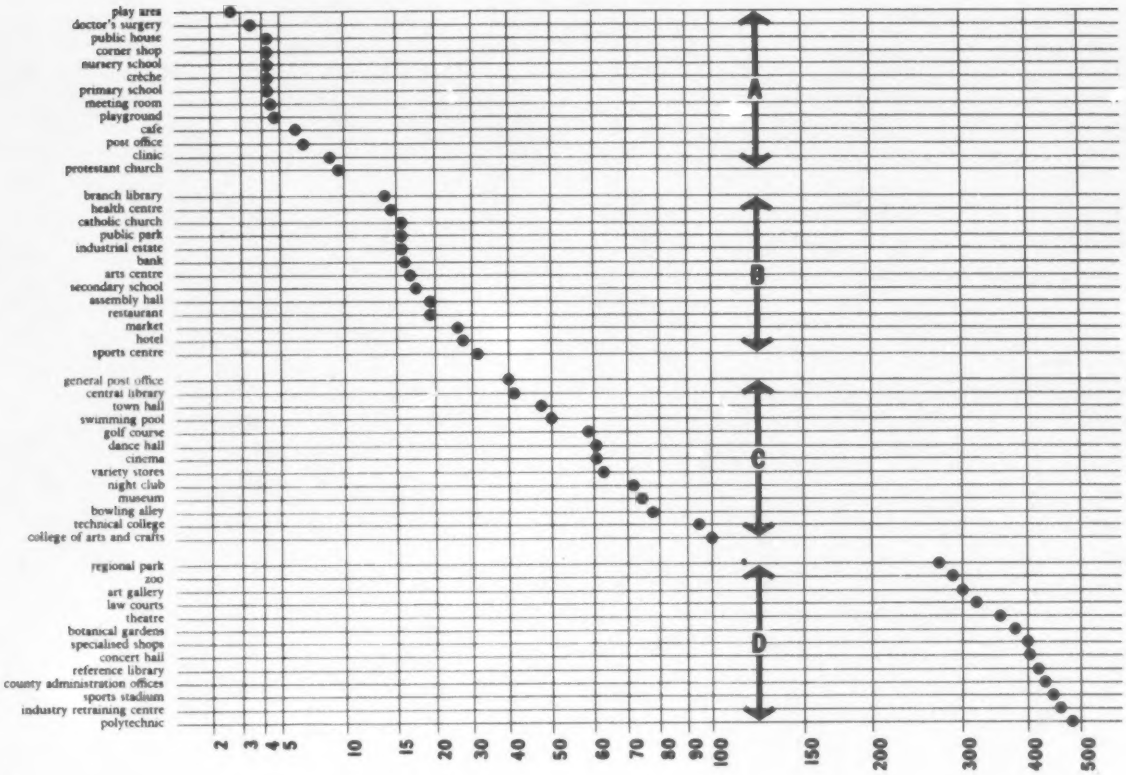
1) Are not included in the Circular. Source: Norms published by L'Institut d'Urbanisme de la Région parisienne.

2) A complex is composed of: 1 sports hall (40 x 20m)
1 gymnasium A' (20 x 15m)
2 practice rooms (15 x 12m)
+ ancillaries

3) The residential community premises are provided by the promoters.

CATCHMENT AREAS BY TYPE OF FACILITY

Levels of population at which principal categories of public sector buildings become feasible



Population in thousands

Areas grouped represent populations of :

A	4 000	to	5 000
B	15 000	to	18 000
C	60 000	to	80 000
D	300 000	to	500 000

Source : Based on **Study for a City, Central Lancashire New Town,** HMSO, 1971 quoted in **Design Note 14,** «School and Community-2» (offprint of an article «School and Community» issued in **The Architects' Journal,** 26th May, 1976).

co-ordinated to serve a given population. Even then it is still necessary for the norms reflecting this approach to be sufficiently flexible for supply to be more accurately tailored to demand and for the resources supplied really to match the estimated needs proposed by the norms, and this is not always the case.

74. With this general framework as its starting point, co-ordinated facilities planning may have recourse to more detailed studies of the concrete demands and needs of future users. This may be called the empirical or scientific approach. Some projects, for example, have sought a basis for their decisions on briefing and design in sociological surveys or studies. A good example is the preparatory work in the Angle Park and Thebarton projects near Adelaide in South Australia.(1) Once the first decisions in principle were taken to build a complex of community facilities, a study group was set up for each area concerned under the leadership of a full-time co-ordinator. The survey was carried out at various levels and in various ways. It concerned the local population (representative sample of households and pupils from the secondary schools that were to serve as a basis for the co-ordination of the facilities), the heads of social institutions or organisations working in each area (schools, churches, citizens' and family planning associations, etc.), and the local and regional heads of departments and services affected by the co-ordination (education, sports and leisure, public health, employment, police, etc.). The survey was carried out by questionnaires, interviews and meetings of residents groups in which the "animateurs" were selected from volunteers and remunerated. All the results, which mainly related to the activities people wanted, were analysed and consolidated and were used as a basis for the work of the co-ordinating committee and the architects. Another characteristic example is the preparatory work for the "integrated facilities" project at Villeneuve, Grenoble. Over a period of nearly a year, two sociologists from the urban development agency studied and analysed the needs and proposals expressed in the framework of the "Villeneuve commissions" (which held a total of 40 meetings) made up of members of the population and local leaders meeting together at the invitation of the municipality.

75. The limitations of such surveys sometimes lie in their disappointing nature. The results they produce often look as though they could have been foreseen in advance or seem to be out of proportion to the work put into them. There are two reasons for this as the Australian experience shows. One lies in the method - the questions about what activities are wanted largely predetermine the answers and these, really, are merely an

1) "Recent Developments in Australia", Building for School and Community: IV. England, Australia, OECD, Paris, 1978.

indication of preference between possibilities already known and do not bring out any new needs. The other is bound up with the general situation - it has been found that the people questioned are only aware of a limited number of needs and that some needs fail to be expressed for as long as the concrete possibilities of meeting them (in the form of facilities, for example) does not exist in the universe of which the population consulted is aware. This is further confirmation of the theory that supply influences demand (paragraph 69). Lastly there is always a danger, when using the results of such surveys, that those who decide on needs "from the outside" so to speak, or those responsible for interpreting the wishes expressed, may confuse these wishes with those that they think the population ought to have. The value of the Australian survey is that it made a real attempt to combine the wishes that were in fact expressed with the ideas of the people responsible in the services and local organisations. One of the essential benefits found in this approach is that the ideas of those responsible are compared with the demands expressed which, though they may or should not be used as they stand, nevertheless force the decision-makers to reconsider their initial perception and to think again about what ought to be provided.

76. The Grenoble study in particular, but the Australian one as well, show that the most valuable results are bound up with the public interest created by these surveys, which are accompanied by press campaigns, and end up by stimulating much public opinion and even agitation about the project. This brings us to a third type of approach to needs that may be called the participation approach. The important feature here is that the population consulted is allowed to take part in decisions on the design and implementation of projects. There are two major results: firstly, as the Grenoble survey - a combined approach - clearly shows, it is through the proposals made by the groups or through their reactions to the proposals made to them by the project developers, that their needs are detected and defined. Secondly, this approach goes beyond the level of consultation and implies exchanges between the decision-makers and groups of participants. The former, in particular, have to feed considerable amounts of information back to the latter, a process which brings out the way in which their requests have been interpreted and shows their effects on briefing and design decisions. The best known illustrations of such approaches are the "charettes" organised as part of the preparation for certain American projects. Intensive work sessions - non-stop in most cases - spread over a fortnight or several three-day sessions, brought together local leaders, officials from various services and volunteer citizens particularly interested in the project. The discussions

concerned both the formulation of objectives and the expression of requirements or the analysis of the local situation. But these "charettes" involved only a limited number of people even though this number was considerably larger than that normally working on projects of this type. Some experiences, however - particularly those conducted by David Lewis in Gananda and Seattle - show that it is possible to go even farther and to have a considerable number of people (even more than a thousand) participate in the preparation of projects through a continuous dialogue between designers and participants.

77. The limitations to these procedures lie firstly - and precisely - in the extent to which the public concerned can participate. In the case of projects for new towns, of course, this kind of method is limited by the fact that the population concerned is not on the spot and must therefore be replaced by simulation methods based on similar populations to the expected one. More generally, difficulties arise regarding the representative nature of those who take part in the meetings, the unequal opportunities for participation which still persist even when it is possible to pay the participants; participation depends very largely on the availability of people and their ability to express themselves. Nevertheless, even if these approaches can and need to be improved, they have a considerable impact on the design and future operation of projects. For one thing they mean that the design of the facilities is based on a dialogue between those who conceive them and those for whom they are intended and thus allow the voice of the users to be heard at an early stage in the project. For another they create interest in the project which will simplify the appropriation of the facilities and their effective use, whereas in many cases the users of new facilities are very slow to understand exactly why and for what they have been built.

Comments on Action

78. An approach to needs - when it is made - is rarely confined to just one of the types analysed above; more generally several are combined. The most generally recognised advantage of the Australian survey, for example, is that of having generated a widespread wish to participate. It would therefore appear useful in the planning of projects to attempt in different ways to gain as broad a knowledge as possible of the needs that the planning is to meet.

79. Studies of needs are costly both in time and money and they require a minimum of skilled staff. This is often an obstacle to conducting them and an argument frequently raised by those who see no value in them. It

would therefore be useful if the time allowed for project preparation could be estimated so as to provide for such studies. It would also be helpful if specific resources in the form of initial research funds could be provided in good time. Unfortunately investors responsible for facilities do not generally allow for the provision of such funds and where they have been forthcoming, as in the American projects, it has been through an exceptional contribution by certain bodies. In co-ordination of facilities, appropriations for the cost of facilities should include suitable research funds. One way of reducing the cost of the studies on each project would be to make provision for general studies the results of which would be available to those responsible for individual projects, thus preparing and lightening the work on the spot that would still be necessary. Given to specialised bodies likely to be involved in various projects they would also offer a level of technical or scientific quality that few local teams would be in a position to match.

80. Approaches to needs - even when they have no scientific pretentions - must attempt to introduce a certain discipline. In the phrase "the needs of the population" the word population is often ill-defined and sometimes designates a rather abstract universality. Experience has shown that populations are never homogeneous and always include groups and categories voicing different needs. Istres is a case in point. As has been seen earlier (paragraph 51), one of the objectives of the project was to promote a communication between old and new populations. But as the project developed it became clear that these two very general categories were no longer sufficient since each of them included highly differing groups - the newcomers differed in the country or region of origin and the existing residents in the length of time they had been settled in the area. It would therefore seem to be necessary to relate the various categories of needs to the various categories of population voicing them and that only this twofold diversity - the criteria for which are admittedly difficult to establish - can provide the key to a proper knowledge of the needs to be met.

81. Lastly, allowance has to be made for changes taking place in needs, the known state of which at any given moment represents only an incomplete picture. For one thing needs do not reveal themselves; a major effort of stimulating needs would seem to be necessary. In the American examples of the re-use of empty schools, the task of the co-ordinator appointed initially was to bring to the surface the non-expressed needs of the population which would permit decisions to be taken on the use of the available facilities. More generally, at the design stage, proposals should be presented and tested not only in relation to the needs that they

match but also those that they may generate. It would also appear that the function of studying needs should be maintained as the projects develop. The operation of a project and changes in its context both continually give rise to new needs that should be detected and heeded by those responsible for the use of the facilities.

PROJECT PLANNING

82. The following paragraphs deal with problems common to all co-ordination projects and concern their most general aspects - their general design, the way they fit into their context, decisions on what facilities have to be co-ordinated and the co-ordination of resources. The order adopted here could give the impression that planning comes after the determination of needs and the formulation of objectives but this is not so, because in concrete situations account has to be taken of empirical data the occurrence of which is not governed by the logical pattern of a rational plan of action. Thus co-ordination projects often owe their origin to the obtaining of certain resources - a school it has been decided to build, for example - and often a first idea is sketched for the project before the objectives have been clarified or anything is known about the needs that have to be satisfied. Moreover, from a methodological viewpoint, the study of needs and the formulation of objectives are an integral part of planning and there is a two-way current between objectives and needs on the one hand and design on the other, an interaction that helps to define each and bring each into better focus.

Lessons to be Learnt from Non-planned Projects

83. As pointed out in paragraph 25, the case studies included some projects where there had been no real planning and which had developed along empirical lines. A typical case is the Yateley Centre (in England) where the extension of a comprehensive secondary school had, by phased additions, finally resulted in a complex of co-ordinated facilities. To a school designed purely for educational use were added, in phases, new teaching blocks and specialised facilities (music rooms, art/craft workshops, drama room) fitted out to accommodate community activities; facilities that lend themselves particularly well to shared use by both school and community (sports hall, youth club, swimming pool); and community facilities where use by the school was also planned (public library). (1)

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1) Hawkins, op.cit., paragraph 31.

84. In many situations studied in the United States, co-ordination of facilities has taken place, without any real planning, as a feature of the organic evolution of community education. At Flint in Michigan (General Motors headquarters) for example, the organisation of the education system at the level of the whole town has developed over a long period beginning in 1935 on the initiative of the Mott Foundation in accordance with a model that today is well known and widespread. Every school there has become a community school, the educational action of which extends to the socio-economic aspects of the life of the community and co-operation between the school and other community services is a relatively general phenomenon. But, in proportion to its scale, this development has had very little effect in terms of introducing co-ordination into urban planning and architecture. Some new buildings, nevertheless, do illustrate the trend but these particular projects have been developed by phased additions. The Williams School itself, where co-ordination in physical terms is more real, materialised through the phased construction of three separate units on the same site: a primary school built in 1969, a sports and leisure centre in 1970 and a public services building in 1971.

85. These projects illustrate or reflect a continuity - referred to in paragraphs 9, 10 and 36 - that is characteristic of their context, namely the continuity that has come into being between the development of the social objectives of education and the co-ordination of the school with other community facilities. Where there is no concern for planning, the development of projects like this is at the mercy of circumstances and in the end they often give unsatisfactory results. At Yateley, for example, it has not been possible to ensure a coherent development of the facilities; they seem too spread out and liaison between the various parts is not satisfactory. It was not possible to avoid duplicating certain facilities (boiler-houses for example) and there was no master plan to guide the phased construction. Nevertheless these projects provide certain lessons which could be of benefit in planning co-ordinated projects. In the successive phases of growth of these projects, the existing facilities are bigger than the new ones provided. These projects, therefore, imply the need to co-ordinate existing with new resources and to consider how the former may be converted for different uses than those for which they were originally designed, and highlight the importance of adaptability in buildings. The empiricism of the procedures means that finance can be used as and when it becomes available and the lessons and successes of what has already been done can be applied to the creation of new opportunities. This empiricism also underlines the importance of an exact match between the proposals for new facilities or changes to existing

facilities and the demands of the community. The phased provision of facilities also enables closer regard to be paid to the use made of the existing ones and it is far easier in this process than in completely new projects to take account of the attitudes of the users and the people running the facilities, and also of their needs in the way of new activities. The dialogue between designers and users is established in the action itself. Lastly, since more often than not in these projects it is a matter of putting existing buildings to new uses, appreciable importance is attached to organising their operation and to arrangements for co-ordinating the use of the facilities. Such considerations, therefore, intervene very early in the design of the new facilities and their effect on this design is often greater than in many planned projects.

The Range of Co-ordinated Facilities

86. In planned projects where efforts are made to reduce the element of empiricism and where available resources have to be applied in relation to needs and objectives, a first problem to be solved is that of knowing which facilities to co-ordinate. Too few cases were studied to frame a set of rules providing a final answer to this question but it is not, in fact, a matter of numbers, for the more general studies available on various countries(1) provide no better basis for more satisfactory answers. In fact, the constellations of facilities that are formed in co-ordination projects each constitute answers to different situations. On the other hand the make-up of these constellations brings out a number of general facts and common problems.

87. As has already been said (paragraph 72), school establishments in most countries are the subject of precise rules regarding the density of the area where they are located. In several countries, social, recreational and cultural facilities - and sometimes even the totality of community facilities - are also subject to such rules as regards their location or governed by the findings of studies having a similar objective. It is therefore possible, on the basis of a given population, to define the facilities that it should have in order to meet its recognised needs and the co-ordination of which might be envisaged. It would therefore seem possible to determine the range of facilities for co-ordination on the basis of the scale of the project - in other words in relation to the area the facilities are to serve. Many co-ordination projects, in fact, use instruments worked out for applying these rules or the findings of the

1) Larry Molloy, Community/School: Sharing the Space and the Action, Educational Facilities Laboratories, New York, 1973.

"Les équipements intégrés - Bilan d'une expérience" (stencil), French Ministry of Education, Paris, 1973.

RANGE OF CO-ORDINATED FACILITIES IN MAIN PROJECTS STUDIED

To allow comparison, the facilities are listed by type and not by their denomination in each country

Project \ Type of facilities	SCHOOL FACILITIES					SPORTS FACILITIES			CULTURAL AND SOCIO-CULTURAL FACILITIES								HEALTH AND SOCIAL FACILITIES									ADMINISTRATIVE FACILITIES					MISCELLANEOUS			
	Technical or vocational school	Upper secondary school	Lower secondary school	Primary school	Pre-primary school	Indoor facilities	Outdoor facilities	Swimming pool	Public library	Theatre/cultural centre, cinema	Leisure centre/community centre	Youth centre or club	Requirent education centre	Old people's centre/club	Museum	Audio-visual centre	Social aid bureau	Health centre - general	Health centre - infants	Health centre - specialised (work, school etc.)	Centre for handicapped children	Crèche or day nursery	Manpower/employment service	Social centre	Guidance and/or vocational training centre	Municipal centre or office	Service for the improvement of dwelling conditions	Legal aid service	Social security office or centre	Police	Public restaurant/cafeteria	Shops	Church	Residences
UNITED STATES :																																	
Thomas Jefferson			●			●	●			●	●		●	●																	●			
Pontiac HRC				●	●	●			●	●	●		●				●	●		●			○			●					●			
Paul Laurence Dunbar	●	●				●		●		●	●											○	○			○	○	○	○	○	●			
SAND*				●		●	●		●	●	●							●						●		●						○		
Mack School				●		●		●		●	●									●											●			
FRANCE :																																	
Maison de quartier de l'Arlequin - Grenoble			●	○	○	○	●		●	●	●		●	○		●	●				○	●		●							●			
CEC - Istres			●			●	●	●	●	●	●		●		●			●	●	●	●	●	○	●	○							●			●
UNITED KINGDOM :																																	
Yateley		●	●			●	●	●	●	●		●	●	●																	●			
Abraham Moss	●	●	●			●	●		●	●	●	●	●	●																	●	●		●
SWEDEN :																																	
Rannebergen				●	○	●	●	●			●	●		●								○									●	○	○	
Västra Frölunda*	●	●				●	●	●	●	●	●		●		●			●													●		○	

● = co-ordination at several levels (physical, functional and institutional).

○ = co-ordination at one level only.

* = projects under constructions.

studies referred to in order to draw up a sort of basic list of facilities for co-ordination. In England, for example, the Ministry for Education and Science recommended in a guideline circular dated 1970, that co-ordination projects should be undertaken when a decision to finance the building of a school was taken. It would then be possible to identify those facilities which ought to be supplied in the catchment area of the school and those already existing so that the co-ordination project would have an objective basis to work on. Of course, the list of facilities for co-ordination is only a starting point and co-ordinating facilities involves other decisions and other measures.

88. In the first place there is the question of the scale of co-ordination as defined in paragraph 22 where it was said that the zones of influence of the various co-ordinated facilities did not necessarily coincide. The case studies show, in fact, that projects differ on this point. Some are relatively homogeneous with all the co-ordinated facilities serving the same area. But this area may be of varying size: in Yateley, for example, the co-ordinated centre serves the whole of the little town (population 18 000) but the facilities planned in the SAND project are scaled to the size of a district of about 5 000 people and the three facilities grouped at Mack School are intended for the two districts that are linked by this centre. In some projects, on the other hand, facilities with highly differing zones of influence have been grouped together. In Istres, whereas the secondary school corresponds to a population of 7 to 8 000 people, the public library serves a population of 25 000, the sports centre attracts people from a number of municipalities and the outdoor swimming pool and the holiday camp have a far wider range still because of their tourist vocation. In Manchester, a recent evaluation report shows that the public for the various activities organised in the Abraham Moss Centre is drawn from areas of widely differing size. The pupils in the secondary schools come from several neighbouring districts but on either side of this mean, the extremes range from the immediate neighbourhood for activities intended for old people to the whole country for certain forms of adult training. From the viewpoint of their scale, co-ordination projects therefore imply a twofold choice: should the range of co-ordinated facilities serve the same population area or should it correspond to a set of different areas, and in either case what would be the optimum size for the area or areas.

89. There do not seem to be any rules to help in making these choices but a number of comments are called for. The choices depend, primarily, on the objectives of the projects and on their overall strategy. Reference to the distinctions drawn in paragraphs 50 to 54, for example, shows that

SCALE OF THE CO-ORDINATED FACILITIES IN THE PROJECTS STUDIED

The areas of the concentric circles are proportionate to the number of inhabitants in the zones served by the facilities (numbers indicated represent orders of magnitude).

KEY :

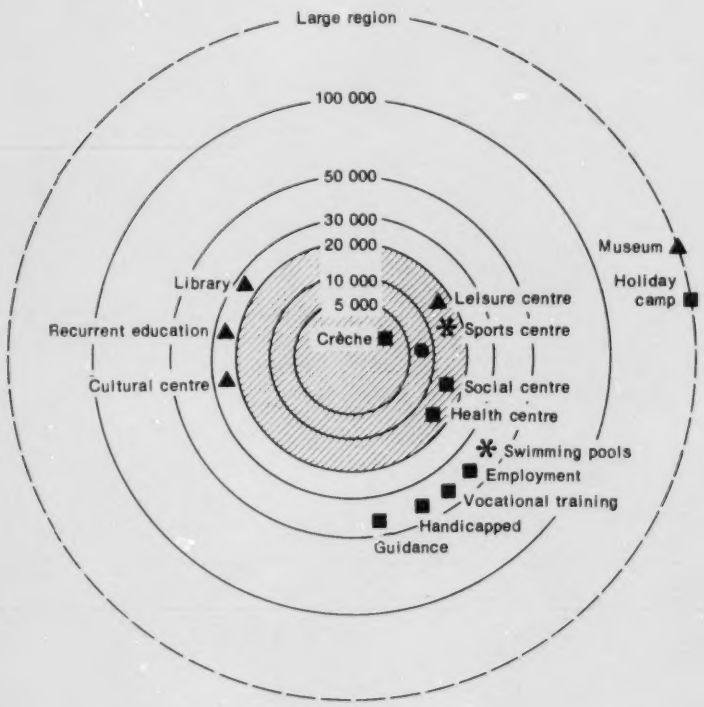
- *Primary school*
- *Secondary school*
- *Sports facilities*
- *Cultural and socio-cultural facilities*
- *Health and social facilities*
- *Administrative facilities*

(There is no relation between the way the signs representing the facilities have been disposed and the actual location on site of these facilities).

Closely linked to the preceding table on the range of facilities, the graphs which follow express, in a simplified manner, the disparity or, on the contrary, the coherence of scale of the co-ordinated facilities in some of the projects studied.

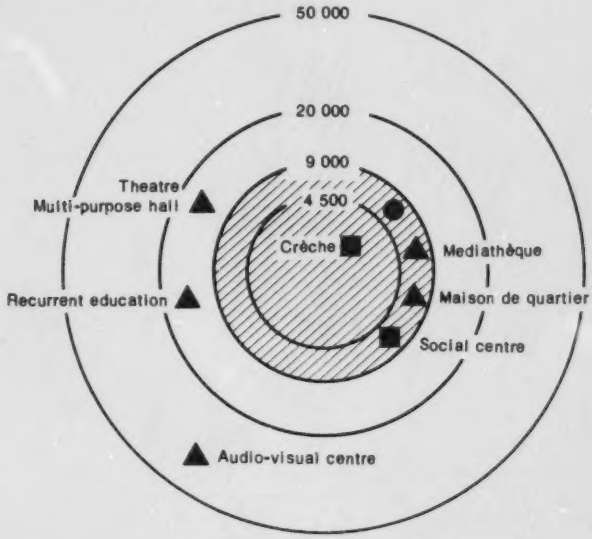
ISTRES : Disparity of scale and wide reach

(The shadowed area corresponds to the town of Istres)



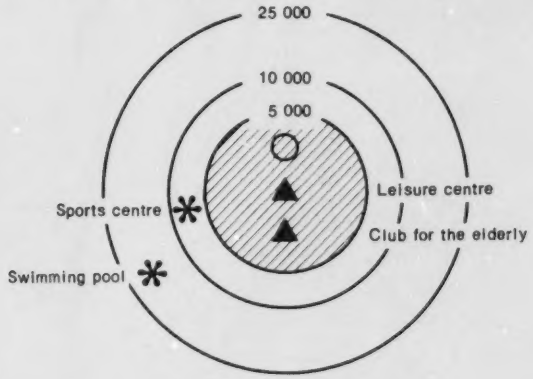
GRENOBLE, CES - Maison de Quartier : Fairly great coherence of scale and medium reach

(The shadowed area corresponds to the Arlequin district)



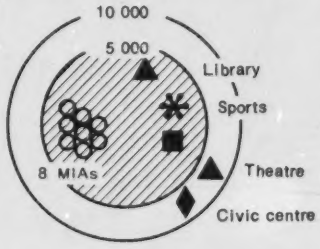
RANNEBERGEN CENTRUM : Fairly great coherence of scale and small reach

(The shadowed area corresponds to the Rannebergen housing district)



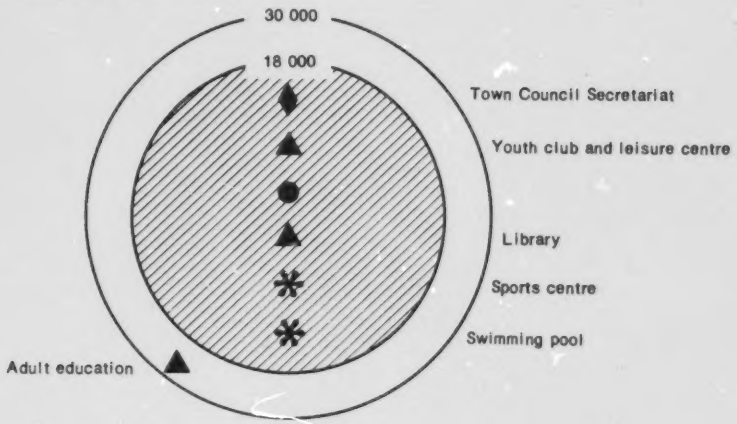
SAND, as planned : Great coherence of scale and small reach

(The shadowed area corresponds to the neighbourhood of South Arsenal)

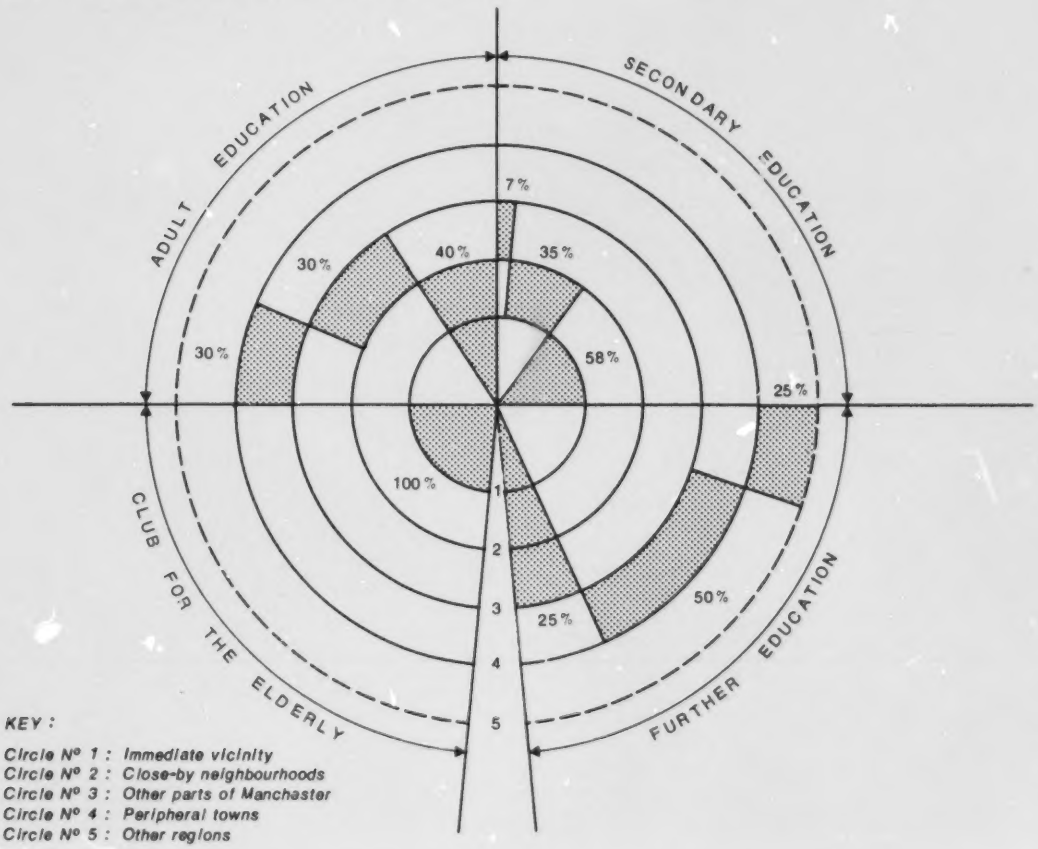


YATELEY : Great coherence of scale and medium reach

(The shadowed area corresponds to the town of Yateley)



ABRAHAM MOSS (Manchester) : The scale is perceived here not in terms of the planning of co-ordinated facilities but in terms of actual participation in the activities accommodated. The sectors shown in black correspond to the percentage of participants in four main activities of the Centre according to the areas the participants come from as defined by the concentric circles (this graph has been prepared on the basis of data drawn from «Better than a Baby Sitter, a Progress Report on the Abraham Moss Centre, Manchester» by P.B. Rattenbury, HMI, Department of Education and Science, London, 23rd October, 1975 - unpublished)



KEY :

Circle N° 1 : Immediate vicinity
Circle N° 2 : Close-by neighbourhoods
Circle N° 3 : Other parts of Manchester
Circle N° 4 : Peripheral towns
Circle N° 5 : Other regions

objectives of social integration and communication between different social groups would seem to go better with the choice of a relatively large scale and above all with a variety of zones of influence for the various facilities. Conversely, projects which stress the unity of the community, particularly when that unity already exists before the project is defined, will tend to strive for uniformity in the various zones of influence.

90. These choices also relate to those regarding the type of facilities and services to be co-ordinated and the level of resources it is intended to apply to them. It is clear, for example, that the facilities in the Thomas Jefferson sports and leisure centre in Arlington (United States) - a 6 000 m^2 covered sports hall, and a 720-seat theatre, both very well equipped - could not have been provided unless the centre was to serve the whole town, which greatly exceeds the catchment area of the secondary school associated with it. Many types of cultural and social facilities cannot be provided unless the population is large enough and there are few public services with a similar density to that of the education services. In addition, the present tendency to reduce the size of schools, for obvious pedagogical reasons, could result either in generalising the difference between the scale of the school and that of the other facilities associated with it or in developing new modules for the latter corresponding to the scale of the schools.

91. Lastly, the scale of co-ordination will depend on the importance attached to projects in urban development. Those linked with town centres designed as poles of attraction for a whole urban area, co-ordinate facilities with large zones of influence and tend to be set up around upper secondary schools or else make do with non-uniform scales. Those in town districts have more modest facilities, and the scale may be even further reduced to small sized sets of facilities at neighbourhood level. Even then it should be noted that this opposition between districts and well equipped, attractive, and indeed prestige centres stems from a conception of urban planning that is not yet adopted in all countries. It is possible, for example, to locate facilities with different vocations but with overlapping zones of influence in various districts of a town, even though they may be scaled to correspond to the population of a district. The scale of co-ordination, therefore, has to be assessed at the level of all the facilities of a town as well as at the level of each facility or sub-set of facilities.

92. Defining the range of co-ordinated facilities does not depend solely on their scale. The diversity of the range, in the cases studied, clearly depends on the scope or field of co-ordination, in other words the number

of functions and facilities involved (paragraph 23). When this field is restricted and co-ordination relates to only two or three types of facility, the same combinations have a tendency to repeat themselves everywhere (school plus sports and leisure plus adult education or library) as if there were, so to speak, natural affinities, or unanimously acknowledged links, between these types of activity. But when the field of co-ordination broadens out, the number of choices increases and projects begin to take on their own characteristics, depending to some extent on their line of development and their objectives. This is particularly noticeable in the importance attached to social facilities. The Istres project, for example, laid particular stress on the social dimension it ought to have, in view of its context of rapid urban and industrial development. The corresponding facilities are particularly numerous - 6 out of a total of 14 - whereas there are none at Rannebergen or Mack School.

93. Diversity also depends on the attitudes taken by the departments or agencies responsible for the provision of facilities and involved as partners in projects. We have seen that motivations for co-ordination varied in strength with the various services and the personalities representing them, but also with the balance of power between the various partners. For example, acceptance of the leadership of the education services in co-ordinated projects varies considerably with the national context or local situation. Attitudes towards the special category of partner constituted by commercial establishments may also vary considerably according to context. Whereas in some countries their participation is accepted and even solicited, in others the conflict between their objectives and the non-profit-making objectives of the co-ordinated facilities would seem to be beyond resolution. Church participation in projects also depends largely on the context. Lastly, the participation of the various partners depends also on the nature of the links and relationships envisaged in the co-ordination of facilities and services. At Istres, for example, a distinction is drawn between "integrated establishments", which co-ordinate their action and the use of their facilities very closely, and "associate establishments" which co-operate but retain their autonomy. Some services, therefore, may accept physical proximity and some measure of interchange with the others, whilst not wishing, for reasons of custom or administration, to have to go any further along the co-ordination path. This attitude may, incidentally, change as projects develop.

94. The tensions observed in relation to the sectoral planning of the various departments are more serious than the above differences, which negotiation can reduce. The planning of the various types of community facilities rarely coincides in space and time, each department or agency

deciding on desirable locations and time-schedules for financing and constructing facilities to suit its own policy. Bringing harmony into this diversity is often difficult particularly since it feeds on the difference in the rules applied and resources available from one department to the next. It may sometimes appear easy to minimise this diversity by using the school networks or school maps as a basis for planning since they have the advantage of existing practically everywhere and complying with clear rules and compulsory provisions. But this convenience is questionable because there is nothing to prove that subordinating policies for community facilities to the requirements or necessities of policies for school building is a better approach than reconsidering school maps themselves in the light of the different needs which have to be taken into account in co-ordination situations. Another solution might be to draw up standard plans, after discussion with the various services concerned, for co-ordinated projects that could be located in a given region. This was tried in Berlin where 13 identical community centres were built. The results vary considerably according to the neighbourhood in which they were located and it would seem that standard solutions are not compatible with the diversity of situations. In actual fact, many of these questions can be solved more simply than it appears when it is remembered that the object in view is more important than what is being co-ordinated. A co-ordinated complex is a new creation in relation to the units from which it is to be built, so that the facilities to be co-ordinated should be regarded, first and foremost, as the means towards this end.

Diversity of Solutions

95. All the above considerations point to the fact that the planning of each co-ordinated project should be placed in the setting of a broader planning - for a whole town or region for example - so that account can be taken both of the specificity of local situations and the relationships between them which cannot be disregarded. Two examples illustrate this point:

> A revealing modification was made to the Istres project as it was being carried out. It had been planned at first that the Centre would have a fairly large (700 seats) multi-purpose hall (for public performances and meetings), mainly financed by the Ministry for Cultural Affairs, but the programme was changed as a result of changes in the policy of the municipality. The finance ear-marked had to be split up between the hall originally planned (which was

reduced to 300 seats) and the restoration of the old casino which was to become the theatre of the old town. This incident - experienced as a sort of crisis in the co-ordination project - proves that coherence between an individual project and the pattern of local life considered as a whole must not be lost from sight.

Rannebergen Centrum is a small complex in a settlement of 1 500 housing units. Nevertheless it has a swimming pool and a sports centre on a far larger scale which ought, according to the urban development plan, have been built at the Angered centre, the intended hub of the conurbation. When this centre is built will the resources ear-marked for it but used elsewhere be available again?

Projects which have a large number of facilities concentrated to a single place may thus create disparities and imbalances in a given urban complex as between areas with a comfortable, not to say, excessive, provision of facilities and areas where, relatively speaking, the reverse is true. A particular point that came out is that it is the sectors with the least resources that suffer most from these imbalances. Co-ordination of facilities, therefore, is also affected by the problem of achieving a balanced distribution of resources at a scale of area larger than that served by an individual project.

96. This is why some projects are of particular interest in having been defined as part of the planning for a whole town. The very small SAND project, for example, is the first step in a plan to reorganise the whole of the Hartford metropolitan area, run by a body set up especially for the purpose (the Greater Hartford Process). Similarly, Mack School was built as part of the Physical Master Plan for the town of Ann Arbor which provided for the restructuring of the town's network of facilities in the light of the relationships that it was anticipated would develop between various agencies and services. The town was split into six quadrants and the facilities in each of them were to form mini-systems that would be partly autonomous but the specific features of which would be complementary. Within each mini-system a network of relationships would be established between all the facilities, old and new, with a community centre being set up around each school. The difficulties of this kind of planning approach should not be underestimated. The large number of mechanisms they presuppose are vulnerable to economic and political crises. At Ann Arbor, for instance, the co-ordination between the Physical Master Plan and the Education Plan was compromised by a change in administration. But the individual projects that were brought into being within this framework (and which show a life and vigour that is not to be found at the level

DIAGRAMMATIC PRESENTATION OF TOPOLOGICAL RELATIONS BETWEEN COLORDINATED SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES

Symbols used:

- ○ Non-specialised school activity
- ● Specialised school activity
- ▲ Community activity (or service)
- ✳ Profit-making activity
- ⬚ Physical unit
- ▭ functional unit
- ▭ ▭ Close functional units
- ▭ ▭ Distant functional units
- ——— Functional link between school activities or between school and non-school activities

- ○● School activity only
- ▲ Community activity only
- ●▲ School and Community activity - predominantly school
- ▲● School and Community activity - predominantly community

This method of presentation takes into account the nature and relative position of activities as well as their functional or physical relations.

It allows a more detailed analyses of various modes of co-ordination by emphasizing the partial activities actually involved and the ensuing relations.

For reasons of clarity, areas and distances are not presented proportionally, nor do the diagrams include any reference to open-air activities or to evening classes without specific accomodation.

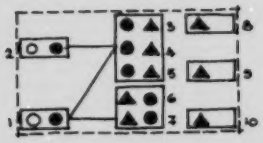
(Based on a current study by S. Abdulak, architect-urban planner at the Centre de Recherches d'Urbanisme in Paris, concerning the integration of educational facilities in relation to the structuring of urban space).

ARLINGTON

Th. Jefferson Jr High School

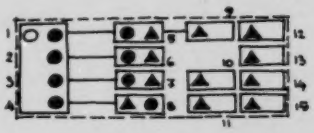
1 Junior High School
2 Theatre
3 Gymnasium
4 Game Room - Cafeteria
5 Locker Rooms

ANN ARBOR
Mack School



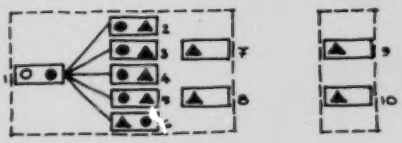
1 Primary School
2 Community College
3 Dining Room
4 Multi-Purpose Room
5 Music-Arts-Crafts
6 Gymnasium
7 Swimming Pool
8 Adult Education
9 Social Activities
10 Health Clinic

PONTIAC
Dana P. Whitmer Human Resource Center



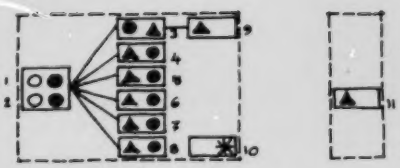
1 Primary School
2 Kindergarten
3 Special Education
4 Community College
5 Restaurant
6 Workshops
7 Gymnasium
8 Theatre-Exhibitions
9 Community Lounge
10 Adult Education
11 Adult Libraries
12 Adult Workshops
13 Day-Care
14 Social Services
15 Health Centre

BALTIMORE
P.L. Dunbar High School



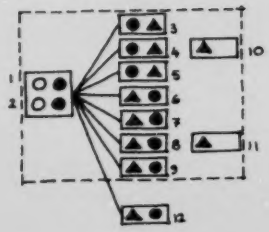
1 High School
2 Restaurant
3 Workshops
4 Library
5 Theatre
6 Gymnasium-Swim. Pool
7 Agencies and Services
8 Neighborhood City Hall
9 Day Care
10 Social Services

MANCHESTER
Abraham Moss Centre



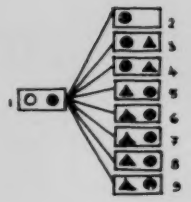
1 Comprehensive School
2 Further Educat. College
3 Dining Room
4 Adult Education
5 Music - Drama
6 District Library
7 Youth Club
8 Sports Centre
9 Old People's Club
10 Shops
11 Residential Unit

VILLENEUVE-DE-GRENOBLE
C.E.S.-Maison de Quartier



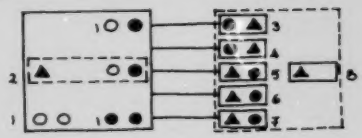
1 CES
2 Special Education
3 Restaurant
4 Mediatheque
5 Labs-Workshops
6 Guidance Centre
7 TV Studio
8 Multi-purpose Room
9 Youth and Leisure Centre
10 Creche
11 Social Centre
12 Gymnasium

ISTRES
Centre Educatif et Culturel



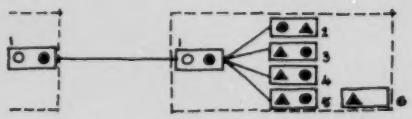
1 Education (CES)
2 Staff Housing
3 Restaurant
4 Administration-Reception
5 Consultation Centre
6 Meetings-Public Perform.
7 Library-Documentation
8 Art/Craft Workshops
9 Sports

YATELEY
School and Community Centre



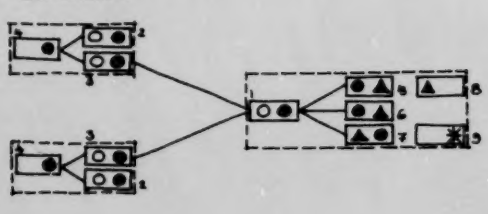
1 Comprehensive School
2 Adult Education
3 Drama Hall
4 Sports Hall
5 Library
6 Swimming Pool
7 Youth Club
8 Town Council Office

VÄSTRA-FRÖLUNDA
Centrum



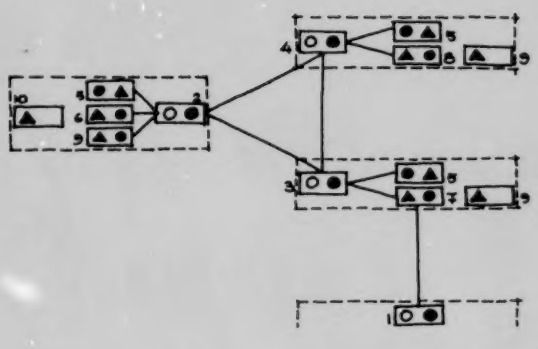
1 Comprehensive Upper Secondary School
2 Dining Areas
3 Meetings-Public Performances
4 Regional Library-Exhibitions
5 Sports
6 Dental Clinic

RANNEBERGEN
Service Centrum



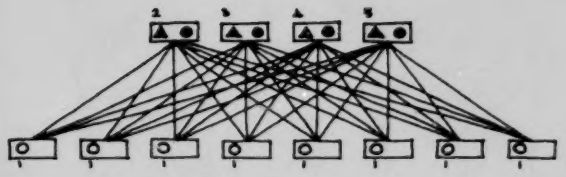
1 Prim. School (grades 3-6)
2 Prim. School (grades 1-2)
3 Nursery School
4 Play and Gym. Area
5 Dining
6 Sports
7 Leisure Centre
8 Church
9 Shops

CREWE
Central Area Study



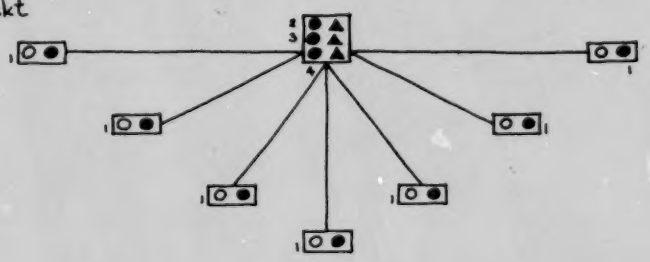
1 Lower Sec. Classes (age 11-13)
2 Higher Sec. Classes Centre A
3 Higher Sec. Classes Centre B
4 Higher Sec. Classes Centre C
5 Dining
6 Drama-Art
7 Sports
8 Lectures-Music
9 Adult Education
10 Creche

HARTFORD
Sand



1 Multi Instructional Areas
2 Gymnasium
3 Arts Centre
4 Library Resource Centre
5 Theatre

LONDON
The Cockpickt



1 London Schools
2 Drama
3 Music
4 Art Teaching

of the general structures) have benefitted fully from this overall perspective and are still regarded as development models.

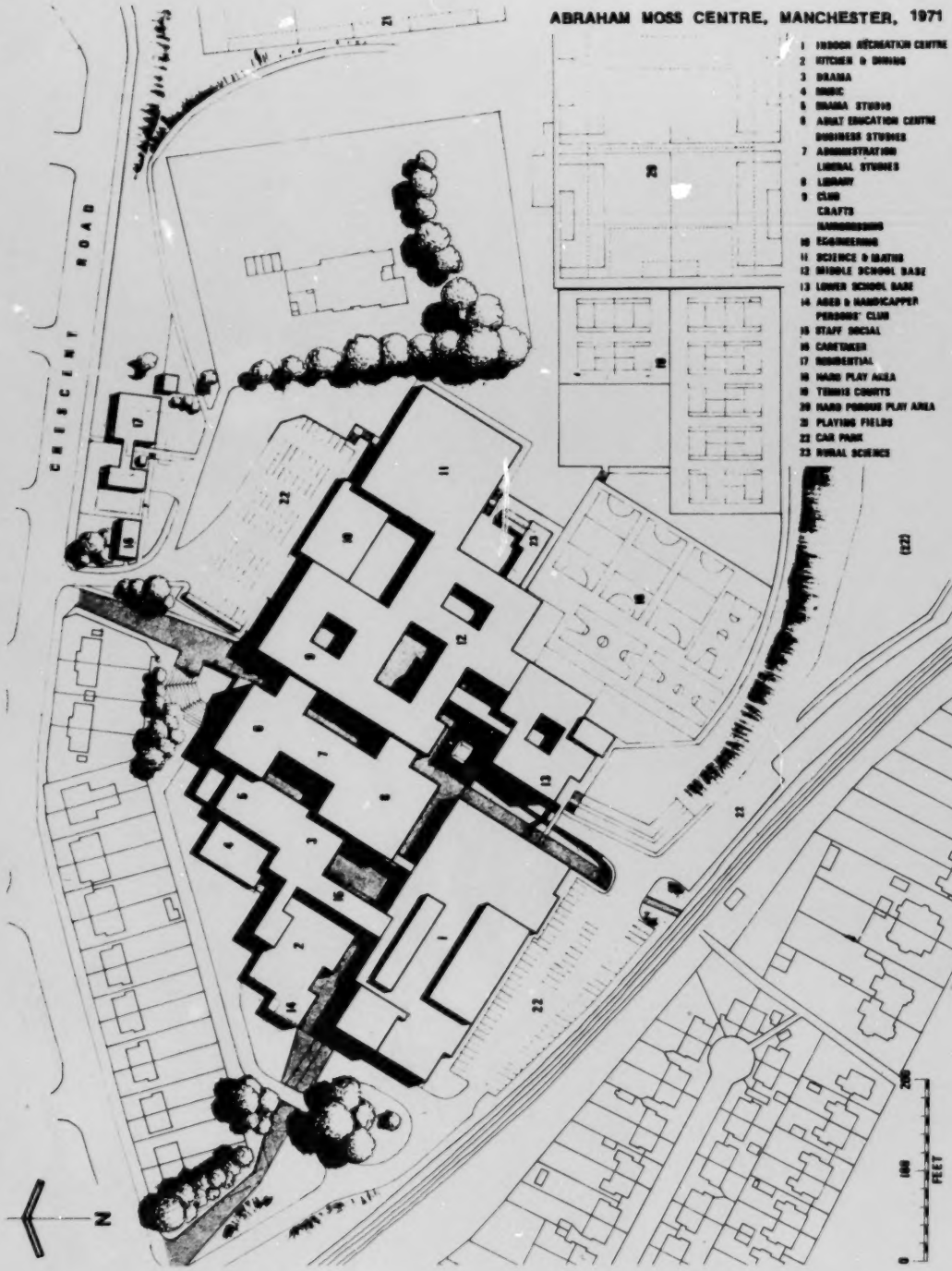
97. If the various cases that have been studied are looked at from the viewpoint of overall planning of policies for the provision of facilities, three main ways of dealing with co-ordination can be identified.

i) Concentrated projects which group a variable number of different facilities corresponding to different functions and coming under different services under one roof (complexes) or on the same site (campus). In the planning of such projects there is a tension or even rivalry between internal co-ordination (concerning the relationships between the grouped functions and the facilities themselves) and external co-ordination (regarding the relationships between the project and its immediate environment and the various elements of its context).

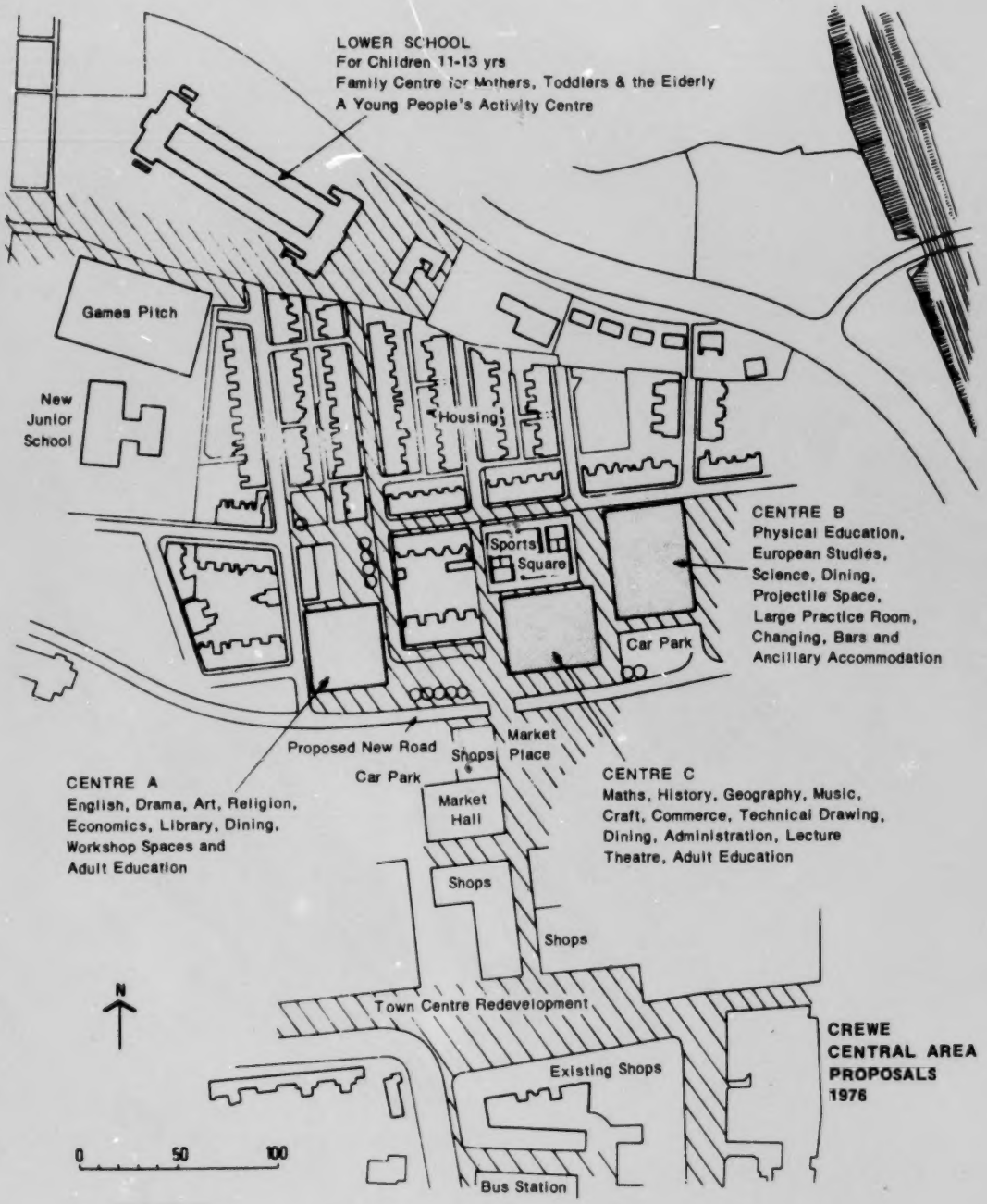
ii) Network systems, in which co-ordination is less a question of the physical proximity of different facilities and more one of relationships established throughout the urban fabric between the facilities that make up the elements of the network. These elements may be specialised or composite, each constituting in itself a small complex of different facilities while retaining its dominant function which is complementary to the functions of the other elements of the network. The latest projects under study in England by the development group of the Architects and Building Branch of the Department of Education and Science, clearly point in that direction.(1) This type of planning seems to offer the advantage of avoiding the tensions and imbalances of the previous approach and enabling existing facilities to be used in combination with new ones.

iii) The dispersed solutions, in which co-ordination is a matter of creating facilities of a new type designed, for instance, to provide common services to other facilities. A simple example would be to build a restaurant - open both to the public and to pupils - to serve several nearby schools, a youth centre and public services all at once so that these establishments do not have then to provide the facilities corresponding to these common services. Another example is to be found in the Cockpit Theatre in London which is a small centre used as a base by three teams

1) Design Note No. 14, "School and Community-2", (offprint of the article "School and Community" in The Architects Journal of 26th May 1976), Department of Education and Science, London.



Source : «Cheetham Crumpsall Centre», brochure issued by the Development Group of the Department of Education and Science, London, on the basis of an offprint from *Municipal and Public Services Journal*, 30 July 1971.



Source : «Crewe Central Area Project», brochure prepared by the Development Group of the Department of Education and Science, London, for the Skokloster Symposium, 1976.

of "animateurs" (drama, visual arts and music) working in liaison with the school establishments in part of London as well as with associations and groups of residents. The Cockpit is open to school and non-school publics. The advantage of such solutions lies in the fact that the level of service (in physical and human resources) available in these facilities can be much higher than that which could possibly be provided in each school. In addition, the participation of the non-school population is often encouraged by the fact that this type of facility is less saddled with the image of school and the necessities of education than facilities associated with schools.

Co-ordination of Resources and the Financing of Co-ordinated Facilities

98. Among the many practical problems connected with co-ordination of facilities finance is one of the most irritating. In principle, it can be stated in simple terms. Apart from the question that applies to all facilities projects, namely how to obtain the finance, the problem is how to bring finance from differing sources together for a single project. Although foreseeable because of the very nature of co-ordination, the number of sources of finance for co-ordinated projects is surprisingly high and it is not unusual to find up to twelve for a given project. There are several reasons for this. The finance that has to be co-ordinated may consist of public funds provided by departments and services and private or quasi-public funds provided by agencies. Secondly, the services responsible for managing the grants and the use of the resources are very numerous. Lastly different levels of decision are involved since the funds may come from central, regional or local authorities.

99. The fact that there are many sources does not, in itself, seem to be a major obstacle to co-ordination of finance and only ought to raise problems of accountability. The reason why the number of sources causes numerous difficulties is the associated phenomenon of reciprocal independence and compartmentation of decisions and financing procedures, one of the results of the sectoral division of departments and services to which reference has frequently been made. The planning of co-ordinated projects, therefore, is faced with a financial segmentation which is more of an obstacle the more rigid the administrative structures, the greater the centralisation and the smaller the financial autonomy of the various partners. The effects of this segmentation are aggravated to the extent that the rules governing funding differ for the various sectors concerned and therefore for the facilities to be financed which form the elements of

the project being planned. There are often big differences in the cost norms of the various departments, in the ways in which these norms are formulated, in the procedures for allocating resources (in particular the distribution of costs between central and local authorities which varies from one facility to the next), and the methods of expenditure control. A last factor adding to the complexity is the difference in resources available to the partners involved, which has a considerable bearing on the balance of power between them. In highly centralised contexts, the local communities which are the most concerned in co-ordination are those that have the smallest share of resources and the least financial autonomy.

100. In order to bring the finance together, to organise a fair distribution of costs and responsibilities, and to harmonise and co-ordinate the timing of decisions and deadlines to match the growth of the project, planning has to put the rules in force to original uses or else have new provisions made in order to facilitate co-ordination. The most effective procedures would no doubt be those which would allow resources to be pooled. However, this kind of radical solution seems never to have been used. The idea arouses resistance and reluctance on the part of the partners who are afraid that their responsibility will be eroded or that they will have to give up their own rules of management and the guarantees that they afford. In addition, responsibility for the general management of the use of resources is difficult to assign in this case and there is a risk that it might be entrusted to a purely technical body. In some projects, however, it does seem possible to appoint a single spokesman for the various investors who would be in a position to take responsibility for co-ordinating finance and use of resources. This could be a project management committee, the local municipality or a department with co-ordination as its task. The choice depends very much on the distribution of the powers of decision in the country's political and administrative structure. In addition the problem of controlling the exercise of this responsibility is difficult and will always require careful attention.

101. The measures which seem to be the most positive include the following:

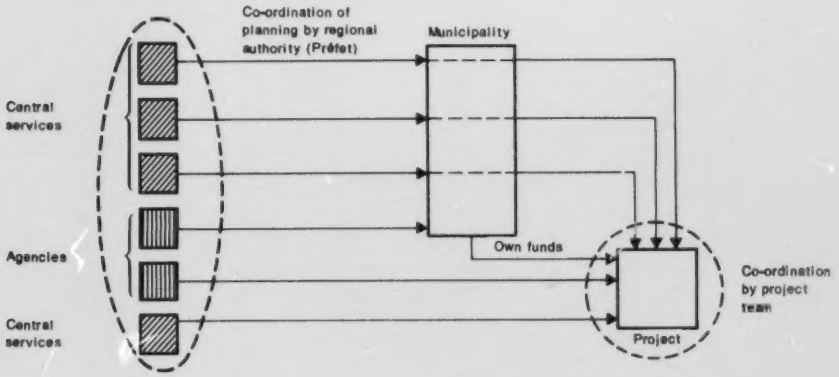
i) The provision of a "single budget line" for financing facilities in new urbanised areas (but this line would still need to be fed by the various departments).

ii) Procedures for overall advance financing: in Sweden, for instance, co-ordinated facilities can be financed by an overall loan granted by the government under the heading of housing loans.

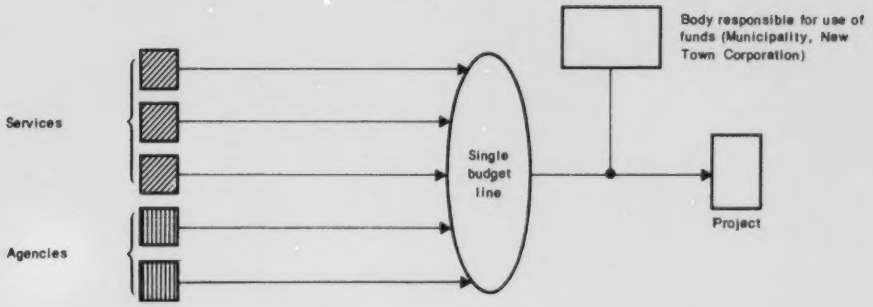
MODELS OF CO-ORDINATION OF FINANCING

The following graphs show, in a simplified manner, various ways of co-ordinating financing. Graph 1 describes a current situation in centralised contexts. Graphs 2 to 5 correspond to the four points listed in paragraph 101.

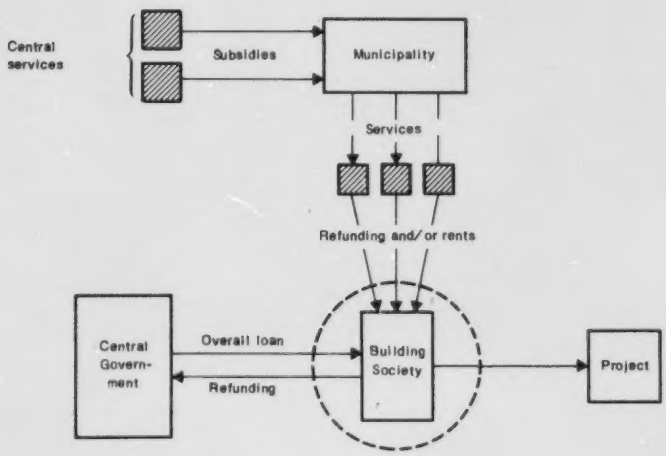
Graph 1 : Current French Model (cf. Istres)



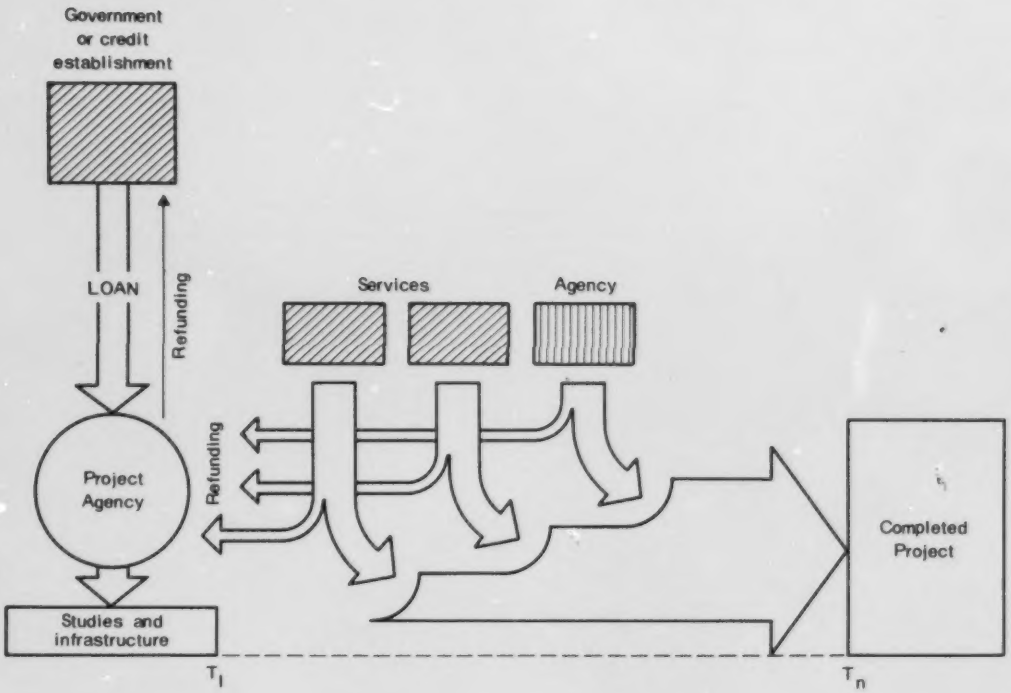
Graph 2 : Financing via «single budget line» (common kitty)



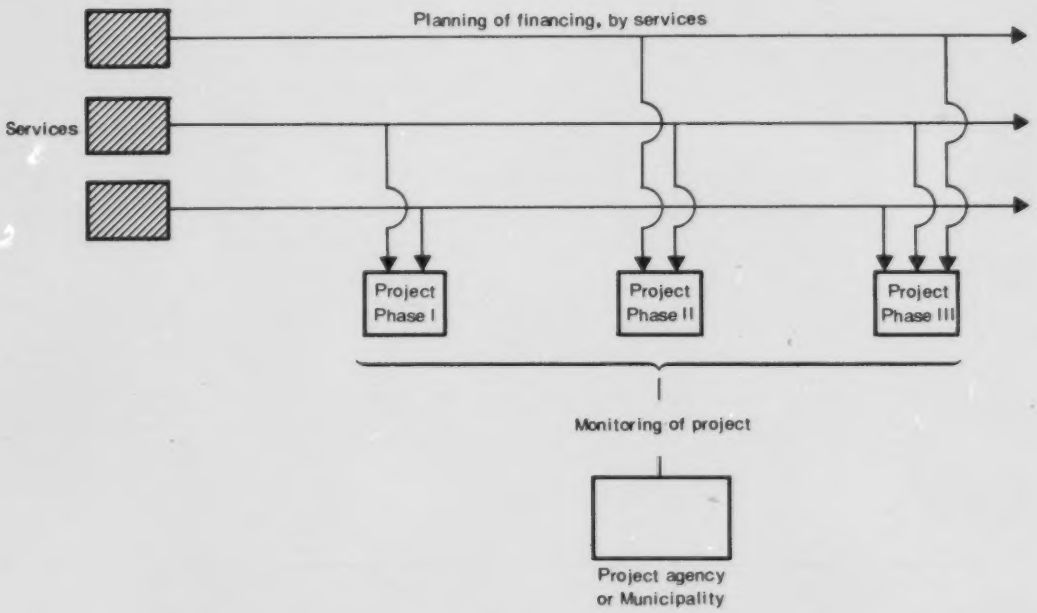
Graph 3 : Swedish model of co-ordinated financing through overall advance loan granted by the government



Graph 4 : Partial advance financing



Graph 5 : Spreading investment over time



iii) Advance finance of certain key elements of the co-ordinated scheme. Special loans or special appropriations may be granted to finance the initial studies, remunerate a co-ordinator or build the infrastructure common to the various co-ordinated facilities. Having resources available from the very moment that planning begins is highly important for co-ordination. They can be allocated - once and for all or in the form of an advance - by quasi-public or even private bodies (foundations) or by government funds (or federal funds in the case of the United States) set up in order to encourage global initiatives.

iv) Lastly finance can be co-ordinated by spreading investment over time. In this case planning must foresee the phased development of the project but instead of building the various facilities one after the other, arrangements have to be made for co-ordination to be effective at every phase beginning with the first. The project can then grow from a first composite nucleus of co-ordinated facilities, each phase adding another composite sub-set. A procedure of this kind is clearly incompatible with the use of standard plans for various types of facility.

BRIEFING AND DESIGN OF FACILITIES

102. The processes considered below are those through which the overall conceptions elaborated at the general planning stage are interpreted in terms of facilities. Earlier steps have enabled available resources to be identified corresponding to the list of facilities to be co-ordinated and have defined the common objectives that the various partners have worked out and agreed. The next step is to define what the co-ordinated project should in fact be. In their contributions to the answer to this question the various partners (those responsible for the various types of facility and the representatives of the local interests involved) bring forward the needs they have to satisfy and their ideas as regards the facilities but also the constraints to which they are subject. These constraints may be formal (norms and standards, limitations on cost, established schedules) or informal (acquired habits, users' demands and expectations, and so on). From this viewpoint, these briefing and design processes are no different whether the facility is co-ordinated or not. The difference in the case of co-ordination lies in the great number of partners involved and, hence in the numerous and varying individual needs and constraints to be considered. The special character of co-ordination is also related to the fact

that the project to be carried out can be described not so much as a sum of facilities but more as a complex in which the whole ought to decide the parts.

Resources and Constraints

103. Briefing/design processes depend largely on the form of the available resources. If the designers had one single envelope of funds - made up of the contributions of the various partners - design freedom would clearly be at its maximum. But it has been seen that resources are never pooled in this way. This often means that the floor areas corresponding to each source of finance are identified in the various projects even when these areas are dispersed into various sub-sets or when areas with different sources of finance are intermingled. In some projects there are "virtual frontiers", with no physical form, from which the use of the facilities does not always succeed in freeing itself. It is more frequent to find partial envelopes corresponding, for instance, to the finance for the school, the youth club or the sports facilities. If these various envelopes are defined as cost limits and if their use is conditional only on compliance with certain minimum areas determined by their function (teaching areas for example) the design process has considerable freedom of interpretation making it easy to adapt individual facilities to the overall conception. Conversely, situations where finance is bound up with a mandatory schedule of accommodation expressed in terms of rooms of a predetermined nature and size are far more restrictive. Provisions of this kind ill suit the task of co-ordination in which exceptions have increasingly to be accepted or ambitions seriously curtailed. In many situations the rigidity of schedules and of the conditions they impose on financing varies from one type of facility to the next either because the requirements or rules of different departments and services in the same country may differ, or else because certain services, in the framework of a project and the negotiations it involves, are willing to "bend the rules" or to experiment with a new approach. This differing degree of flexibility in the conditions imposed by the various investors does not always permit optimum use of resources, the convenience provided by the flexibility of some schedules often allowing the rigidity of the others to go unchallenged.

104. Another type of tension arises in this process. The specific requirements of the various partners cannot easily be reconciled with those implied by the co-ordination of facilities. Attempts have been made in some projects to form, out of a public library and a school library, a single set of facilities that would be both better equipped and suitable for multiple use. It has not always been easy in these cases to reconcile

the proximity desired by the teachers between educational activities and documentation and resources, with the opening up of this set to the public which implies easy access from the outside or links with encounter or leisure areas. This specific problem has arisen in many cases - Istres, Yateley (see the relevant case studies), Grenoble and Abraham Moss (Manchester) - and the answers found have differed widely. As a type of difficulty it is relatively general. It may concern

- the relations between different facilities; not all the links that would be desirable can be provided and priority links differ with viewpoint;
- the detailed design of facilities; in fitting out an education area, how can teaching requirements be reconciled with those of accommodating adults who are to use it? can a medical block meet the requirements of the school health service, the industrial health service and a public health centre at one and the same time or are separate units necessary?
- the functions the facilities are asked to perform; if the effect of co-ordination is to develop the school's social activities, is there not a danger of competition between the requirements that involves and those of the educational function? if a day nursery is also used for training young women as a part of adult education, can this be done without prejudice to the main function of the facility, supposing that additional resources cannot be provided?

105. The difficulty of reconciling the various requirements between themselves and with the objectives of co-ordination also takes many different forms and the solution is not always in the hands of those involved in the elaboration of the projects. The authorities lay down cost norms or qualitative standards which often vary from one to the other, this being only one feature of the diversity in regulations. When some partners can participate in a project only by providing facilities having to conform to standard models or plans they are faced with an all-or-nothing choice. Such facilities generally fit badly into co-ordinated projects and the procedures sometimes end in satisfying needs which do not exist or are met elsewhere in the same project, with the result that duplicate facilities cannot be avoided (the classic case is that of different sports facilities each with its own changing room unit, often under-utilised).

From Idea to Realisation

106. Depending on available resources, the ways in which they can be used, and on the various constraints, but also on the objectives and nature of

the conceptions that are implemented, the solutions offered by the various projects to the problem of co-ordinating facilities differ widely. There is no way of describing their diversity and the attempt made to develop a typology proved fruitless because there were far too many parameters to be taken into account. Moreover, the utility of such a typology did not seem evident. It did however seem possible and relevant to list out certain types among the solutions most frequently encountered, to classify them according to the extent to which co-ordination, defined in physical terms, was taken and to point out the main processes to which they give rise.

107. A first type of solution consists in juxtaposing the various facilities in such a way that each of them corresponds closely to the usual requirements and conceptions of the department or agency responsible for them. The school is the same, or almost, as it would be outside a co-ordinated project and this also applies to the youth club and the library. The juxtaposition of the various facilities may fit the campus pattern /paragraph 97 i)/ in which facilities are brought together on the same site or that of the complex, with the various facilities under the same roof. Yateley belongs to the former type, as does the Conte Community School at New Haven (United States) which includes three semi-specialised blocks (school partially open to adults and sports facilities; auditorium; public library and community centre). The Dunbar complex at Baltimore (United States) however groups its numerous facilities in a single block. (1)

108. The design task as far as co-ordination is concerned relates primarily to the following areas:

The location of the various facilities and their relative positions. The importance of this aspect is proved, a contrario, by the Yateley example (2) where locations were mainly decided by the hazards of empirical development.

The links between the facilities, which may consist of a network of external areas (squares, pedestrian paths, etc.) or in internal circulation areas (halls and galleries) which in that case may perform other functions than that of liaison (reception, exhibitions, informal encounters, etc.).

Relations with the environment; transport and access conditions (car parks, links with public transport, distribution of entrances); reception (halls, information points); external areas which may be seen not only in terms of their functional purpose (games, relaxation,

1) Kennedy, op.cit., paragraph 65.
2) Hawkins, op.cit., paragraph 33.

scenery) but as "bridging" features providing a link with the immediate environment. At Dunbar things were taken even further: the square onto which the complex opens is surrounded by other school or community facilities (without further co-ordination but co-operating with Dunbar Community High School) and was specially designed to serve as an extension of the complex towards the outside.

Lastly, the internal changes that may be made in each facility to enable them to accommodate various activities and different publics. These modifications vary in scale from project to project but they are confined to additions or details of interpretation. At Yateley, for example, the drama studio (a school facility) was fitted out to receive the public (retractable seating). Additional funds made it possible to include, in the same block, a meeting room for the community (municipal council and associations) and the office of the town hall secretariat. Obviously, when the scale of such changes reaches the point where they become conversions, a different type of conception is involved.

109. A second type of solution consists in finding intersections that are possible and desirable between the various facilities. This is a widespread approach but the way it has been done in a number of Swedish projects provides a good illustration. In the first stage, the schedules of accommodation or briefs for the various facilities as they exist prior to co-ordination are analysed in order to establish what parts (in terms of areas to be built) could be superimposed or merged. The areas intended for the schools' sports activities and those of the sports hall can be superimposed, the school and public libraries can be combined and the art/craft workshops of the school and of the leisure centre can be merged. At design level it may then be decided not to build certain areas that are duplicated by others (the sports centre more than meets the school's needs). The areas released in this way are then entered into the balance sheet of the savings made by co-ordination or may scmetimes be used to provide certain facilities not included in the schedules. Another possibility is to put together comparable areas in different schedules and build just one - but larger - facility. This method thus helps to identify those areas that are joint to the various co-ordinated facilities: a joint dining room (which may also serve as a meeting or playroom, staff rooms, sets of workshops, reception hall. The result is that the various facilities are modified to varying extents in relation to their basic schedules, which nevertheless remain fairly firm guidelines for design.

110. A last type of solution, with many different aspects, emerges when attempts are made to integrate facilities more closely. This term is applicable when the component parts of a whole - the facilities in the present case - are defined on the basis of that whole and not the other way around. Instead of basing itself primarily on the interpretation of the schedules or briefs or the various orders that have been passed, the design task is aimed more towards determining the functions that the co-ordinated project has to perform - which are always more than the sum of the functions defined by the various partners co-operating in it. This is an attempt to free design from the codified definitions generally framed by the various services, and from the correlation that is generally established between these functions and the facilities, in order to regroup the activities - and the corresponding facilities - on a new basis.

111. These processes may follow different lines. In a first type of project the main aim may be to identify functional units, a name that might be given to the sub-sets of facilities accommodating activities contributing to one and the same main function. This can be done by an empirical analysis of the basic schedules(1) in order to establish what functions they can perform and the facilities that correspond to them. This is what has been done at Istres where all the planned facilities were broken down into a total of 73 items. Functional sets were then defined by grouping together the various items that were felt to correspond to the same function. At Istres there were ten such sets (education, reading and documentation, administration, reception, sports, art/craft workshops, restaurant, etc.) corresponding to ten sets of facilities distributed over the campus. Thus, the floor areas from each schedule - which it was still necessary to identify for control purposes - are dispersed into various blocks (five for the facilities of the school).(2) This procedure can be taken further as has been done at Grenoble where the functional sets have been defined in operational terms so as to become the basis for the operational organisation of the complex (the "children's centre" set, "media library" set, "self-expression/animation" set, "audio-visual" set, etc.); the facilities were designed as means of action for these sets.

112. Other solutions take the reverse approach by trying to define sets of facilities as a basis for co-ordination. In this case the sets defined are not characterised by one single function, they are multi-functional.

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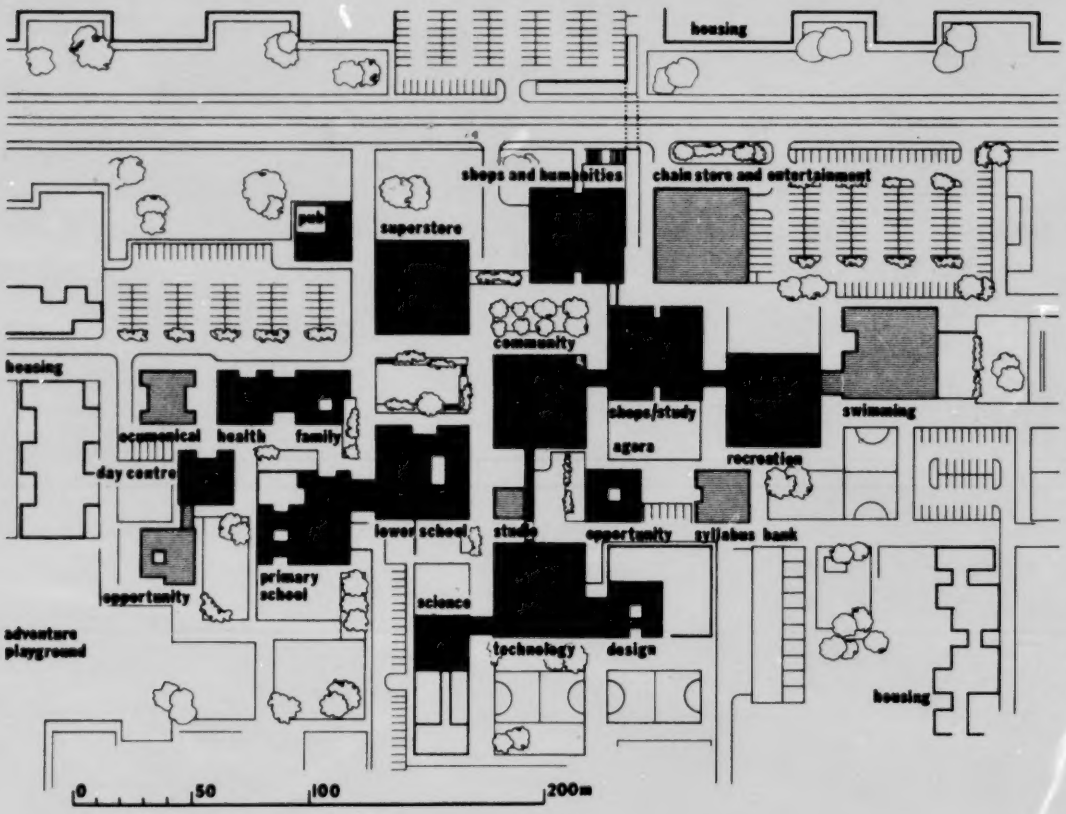
1) Schedules of accommodation or briefs laid down or recommended by the various partners for the building of non-co-ordinated facilities.

2) Le Boterf, op.cit., paragraph 57.

HYPOTHETICAL DISTRICT CENTRE
Development Group of the Department of Education and Science, London



Hypothetical district centre at three stages of development:
1: *three forms of entry at the school* (6000 *population*),
2: *five forms of entry* (16 000 *population*) *and*
3: *eight forms of entry* (18 000 *population*).

Source : **Design Note 14,** «School and Community - 2» (offprint of the article «School and Community» in the **Architects' Journal** of 26th May 1976), Department of Education and Science, London, 1976.

Co-ordination consists not only in developing a system of sets but also in organising the co-ordination of different activities in each unit. Two examples follow.

In the SAND (Hartford, United States) project, one of the basic principles was that the school should be located near the housing (originally it was actually to be integrated into the housing) and that it should become the focal point of community life. This firstly meant that the schools had to be small in size (about 100 pupils)

so that they could be dispersed. It was possible before the project was built to define the model on the basis of practical experience, two of these units having operated in a disused but adapted warehouse. In fact, these schools are multi-purpose units open to the community and accommodating highly diversified school activities as well as community activities. They are sufficiently small for the global way in which the co-ordination of activities is handled not to impede their operation. In the final project, the basic network consisting of 8 dispersed units (multi-instructional areas or MIAs) will be supplemented by functional units also dispersed throughout the district (arts centre, health centre, information and documentation centre, etc.) the users of which will be the schools as well as members and groups of the community.(1)

In England the Architects and Building Branch of the Department of Education and Science is currently conducting a number of development projects(2) based on a procedure called "plot strategy" implying the phased development of projects /paragraph 101 iv)7, in which blocks of co-ordinated facilities are built one after the other, the use of those already built changing with each new addition. Research in this case consists of defining these composite units, all of which are different and multi-functional. This strategy is being applied in the gradual restructuring of the network of facilities in a town now being renovated (Crewe) and also to the development of co-ordinated projects of the campus type in which the facilities have to grow at the same rate as the town they serve.

Concertation

113. Concertation and consultation plays an important part in the processes through which co-ordinated facilities are designed. Co-ordination makes it even more necessary to base design work on a dialogue between designers and users, the need for which has been frequently stressed in the work done within the framework of the OECD Programme on Educational Building. The fact is that, even more than for the building of a school, co-ordinated facilities projects have to predict a new type of operation in order to decide what types of facilities would suit. The absence of precedent that could throw light on the design of new projects is even more apparent. In addition, the "clients" whose demands have to be allowed

1) Kennedy, op.cit., paragraphs 129 to 136.
2) See Design Note N° 14, op.cit.

for by the designers are far more numerous and varied. This is why the term concertation - and not just dialogue - between designers and "clients" has to be used. In this context, concertation takes two forms. It relates not only to exchanges between designers and "clients" but also to the discussion or even negotiation between the various interests implied here by the word "clients", and among whom differences and even conflicts may arise.

114. This concertation has already been briefly described in relation to the participation approach to needs (paragraphs 76 and 77). In fact, it is often the same concertation that runs on from the study of needs to that of design and in most cases it is not possible, in practice, to divorce the two.(1) There is therefore no point in adding any further details to that description, but it is necessary to indicate the various levels at which it may materialise because it is rare for concertation to develop in the elaboration of projects at all the levels at which it is needed. Concertation takes place most frequently at the level of those responsible in the various departments or agencies involved. The representatives of the various authorities (local or regional) may come in at this level of concertation or stay out in order to reserve themselves the possibility of arbitrating. Another level at which it is frequently to be found is that of the specialists, experts and technicians who may either form specific groups or else be brought in as advisers at the first level of concertation. A third level may be defined by the concertation of the staff serving the various co-ordinated facilities: teachers, social workers, "animateurs", leaders of associations, etc. They put forward the practitioner's viewpoint and, judging by experience, find it more difficult to reach agreement. A last level is that of the present and future users of the services provided by the co-ordinated facilities. This level is the most rarely solicited of all, probably because here concertation comes up against difficulties of all kinds (costs in time and money, restricted availability and low level of interest, difficulties of expression, etc.) but also because - either out of concern for efficiency or through personal conviction - those responsible for the projects are doubtful of the utility of its results. Lastly, possible methods are rare and limited whereas the method to be used would seem to have to be all the more sophisticated the wider the participation. Of course, concertation is not just a matter of working by levels; multi-level or even omni-level meetings have to be held. In actual fact, such meetings do not eliminate the distinction between levels and often confirm the precedence that practically all projects give to the former two over the latter two levels.

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1) Cf. paragraph 82 above.

115. Whatever form it takes (meetings or "charettes", working parties, etc.), concertation raises a number of major questions as yet unanswered, the first being that of the part that is in fact played in the design work by the partners at the various levels. All the projects show that those at the first level always retain a decisive role and the question of whether this could be otherwise is still open. Next, it would be useful to know how a concensus is reached and what determines the compromises that any concertation procedure implies. Here a distinction needs to be drawn between two types of decision that are frequently confused with one another: technical decisions on modes of co-ordination and policy decisions on the objectives of co-ordination. Architects often have a special position in this concertation process. It is privileged to the extent that they are not involved in the sectoral divisions between the various services and can therefore help to bring the various interests into harmony. Conversely, however, it is difficult to the extent that, if no-one takes responsibility for co-ordination, they may find themselves, at design level, taking decisions which are in fact policy decisions because of the effects they have on operation. Lastly, and this is a question of method, how can the results of concertation be converted into demands or proposals that the designers can really use. If this stage is not reached, the designers are often left the last word and what they produce will then owe more to their skill than to collective thinking.(1) It would therefore be useful for more information to be circulated about methods likely to make concertation more effective.(2)

STRUCTURES FOR IMPLEMENTING CO-ORDINATED PROJECTS

116. Lastly, a number of organisational and institutional problems involved in the planning of co-ordinated projects have to be considered. They often arise because the usual practice of project planning for separate facilities coming under a single department or investor does not provide the structures necessary for co-ordination. They also arise because the possibility of going ahead with such projects greatly depends on the political and administrative context.

Unification of Responsibility

117. The co-ordination of resources and the coherence of the decisions to be taken are both ill-served by the disparity of responsibilities and their multiplicity arising out of the fact that so many different

1) Kennedy, op.cit., paragraphs 35, 156 and 157.

2) David Lewis, "User Participation in Planning and Design", Building for School and Community: III. United States, OECD, Paris, 1978.

departments or agencies are involved in a project. It might then be thought that if projects could be made the responsibility of a single body their co-ordination would be easier and more effective. But, as was seen when discussing finance, the various departments do not readily delegate their powers and the question then arises of the body to which this sole responsibility should be given. Generally speaking, too, the role of bodies in charge of developing projects is primarily that of co-ordination; unified powers are rarely conferred on them. The effectiveness of this approach largely depends on the administrative system applying in the specific context of the project. In countries where the majority of decisions on facilities can be taken at the level of the local authorities, the fact that local representatives of the various departments serve on the bodies in charge of developing the projects is sufficient - subject to minimum consensus - to ensure effective co-ordination. But where decisions on facilities are taken or have to be approved centrally, there are definite limitations on co-ordination at project level and the local authorities tend either to demand exceptional measures to increase their powers with regard to the project, or to lose interest because the responsibility allowed them is not in proportion to the extent to which they are involved.

118. Another question is that of how to make up the planning teams. In some projects, ad hoc structures are brought into existence for this purpose which are disbanded once the project is in operation. In other cases an attempt is made to use existing structures. This question is very important in its effect on the links between project design and operation. It would seem important to ensure continuity between the responsibilities of planning and of operation. This continuity depends largely on the extent to which the departments and agencies are involved in all the decisions taken in the planning and design process and also on certain measures that may be taken, such as the advance appointment of the director to head the co-ordinated project who may, at planning stage, play a co-ordinating role.

The Role of the Central Authorities

119. In all countries the central authorities are concerned by facilities co-ordination either because they are directly involved in the various projects or else because they consider that co-ordination is a possible or desirable policy for the provision of facilities. They therefore give special attention to projects of co-ordinated facilities. The part they play in their development, in their generalisation or in the initiation of new projects varies considerably from one country to the next. This

depends primarily on policy choices: co-ordination of facilities may be regarded simply as a "try it and see" experiment or, on the contrary, as an aspect of policy for the provision of facilities worthy of support. It also depends on the degree of political and administrative centralisation in the country concerned. In highly centralised countries, facilities co-ordination cannot develop effectively at project level unless a co-ordination exercise is also undertaken at the level of the central administration and a body with real power set up for the purpose. In decentralised systems, action by the central authorities is more in the nature of encouragement. Funds may be set aside in order to help projects get off the ground or the central administration itself may organise financial support of selected projects, as in the United States where the Federal Department of Health, Education and Welfare has set up a service responsible for applying the provisions of the 21st August 1974 Community Schools Act.

120. Whenever central authority wishes to see a co-ordination policy establish itself it should make itself responsible at least for the following:

Regulation. The action to be taken under this heading relates to the exchange of information and interchanges between public departments regarding the possibility, conditions, advantages and dangers of co-ordinating facilities, the harmonisation of the systems of norms and standards governing the briefing, design and building of the various facilities, and the co-ordination of conditions in which funds are granted and, where the problem arises, of the timetables for the provision of finance.

Advice and support. Local authorities or those responsible for individual projects may not have the skills or research resources necessary for implementing these projects with maximum efficiency. It would therefore be helpful if the central authorities could intervene with information, guidelines or advice but also by giving their support to the studies carried out in the projects or by themselves undertaking more general studies on co-ordination problems.

Research and development. Action here concerns the implementation of development projects that are particularly carefully studied, monitored and evaluated with the backing and help of the central authorities, and the results of which can be widely disseminated and turned to account in new projects.

Part Four
THE USE OF CO-ORDINATED FACILITIES AS A FRAMEWORK FOR THE EVALUATION OF PROJECTS

121. The purpose, in this last part, is not to study the use of facilities itself which depends on many factors that cannot be analysed in this report. In particular, it depends on the way in which the co-ordination of services and activities is conceived and on the type of organisation set up to carry it out; and this co-ordination, in its turn, depends on the social relationships characteristic of the context in which it is developed. The viewpoint adopted here is to consider the use of facilities as the concrete meeting point between the operation of co-ordination and the design of facilities. In this sense, the use of facilities contributes to highlighting problems of facilities co-ordination which cover numerous aspects: social relationships within the community, inter-service or inter-agency relations, organisation of operation and the design of facilities. It is this latter aspect that will primarily be explored but reference to the others will be made to the extent that they affect design. Study of the use of facilities therefore boils down to the following question: to what extent and in what conditions can co-ordinated facilities be suitable instruments for the co-ordination of activities and services?

122. Certain observations made in the course of the case studies about the reactions of users to facilities in operation may have been a surprise. Some users for example, showed their indifference, as though they were unaware of the setting in which they were working although they had taken part with some enthusiasm in its design. The truth is that they are disappointed because they had dreamt of something quite different in the way of facilities. Others - teachers - were extremely caustic in their comments regarding the facilities but this, in many cases, was just a way of evading the challenge to their own teaching practice which the co-ordination situation faced them with. The facilities themselves are rarely the decisive factor in the operation of co-ordinated projects. Staff questions, for example, are far more important and some American projects show that, in the recent economic crisis, the use of certain facilities had to be restricted or even suspended because sufficient staff could not be maintained to provide for their full use. It is important, therefore, not to

make the nature of the facilities responsible for effects attributable to other causes. But it is also important to know how it affects the efforts to make the best possible use of the investment. In the example quoted, for instance, it might be wondered whether there are not facilities which would be less vulnerable than others to the economic problems of operation.

Relationship between Forecast Operation and the Design of Facilities

123. In all the projects many differences are to be noted between expected operation - as modelled or purely described in advance during the design work - and observed operation. The phenomenon is classic and relates to all facilities, whether co-ordinated or not, but it is amplified and takes on special features in situations of co-ordination. A few examples will illustrate its scale.

> It was noted in paragraphs 62 and 81 that the objectives of co-ordination projects often had to be adjusted to allow for new needs. In the case of Istres, referred to in this connection, it became obviously necessary to provide relay facilities as near as possible to the residents in the districts which are remote from the Centre éducatif et culturel and lacking in social services. In Grenoble, although a socially differentiated population had been expected, the fact that 25 per cent of children and young people were immigrants, took those responsible by surprise and this fact proved highly important in the use of the co-ordinated facilities. Lastly, in Rannebergen the new district attracted more old people than foreseen whereas the primary school in the Centrum does not have enough pupils.

124. It may not always be possible to put the educational model worked out at design stage into effect in the school included in the project because the teaching staff appointed at the time of occupation may not have the same views as its designers, or may not be sufficiently skilled, with the result that the coherence of the project is destroyed and some facilities are under-utilised. Conversely, projects may develop their own dynamics and the school may find itself changing more quickly than foreseen and express needs in the form of new activities.

125. New activities arise and generate new needs in the way of facilities. This is true of Ann Arbor where new programmes were launched by the education authorities after Mack School was built (e.g. the Retired Senior Volunteer Program).(1) In the case of Istres a reception point for the open-air centre (organisation of children's recreation) had not at first been

1) Kennedy, op.cit., paragraph 174.

planned in the co-ordinated centre and was decided after the project was put into operation. When new activities arise, the relative importance of the various activities changes, altering the proportions of the various publics. In Dunbar, the drop in the number of pupils at the school made it possible to locate a centre for the education of very young children in an area of the school thus made available. Internal transformations bring about numerous changeovers in the use of accommodation of the type referred to in this example. It may be due to the growth of certain needs (at Istres offices were converted into meeting rooms and a small library into an "encounter room") or the decline of others, but it may also result from a decision by the users (in Rannebergen the old people abandoned the hobby room and installed themselves in a multi-purpose room they fitted out themselves, and a staff dining room was converted into a teenage club). A factor that has to be reckoned with, therefore, is the dynamics of co-ordinated projects which generate new requirements themselves (sometimes incurring the mistrust of departments or agencies) and change to suit their own needs.

126. There are several reasons for the differences observed. One is that the study of needs is always insufficient, as has already been pointed out. Clearly such study cannot solve all problems and many of the above examples seem to suggest it has no value but, provided it is not purely static it can make some useful forecasts in the form of alternatives. But it is just as important to recognise that not everything can be predicted. The forecasts furnished by the study of needs should therefore be combined with the provision of the necessary freedom for unforeseeable development. The design of facilities should therefore not merely accept but also encourage a certain indetermination.

127. Other causes for differences between design and reality do not have this positive side. They relate to the discontinuity between decision-makers at design level and those at operation level who do not always fall in with the responsibilities and choices of the former. For example, depending on whether it is possible or not to recruit staff on the basis of criteria linked with the objectives of the project and to appoint them in advance, results will differ considerably.

Organisational Provisions and Structures and the Use of Facilities

128. The way in which operation is organised in a co-ordinated project is obviously a decisive factor in the use of facilities. There is, in fact, a considerable measure of interdependence between the co-ordination of activities and services and that of the use of the facilities. Whilst the former controls the latter, the latter reveals or reflects the problems

arising at the level of the former. This can be seen, for instance, in the phenomena of appropriation - like the exclusive and almost continuous occupation of a reception hall by a group of young misfits - which reveal the reality of certain social tensions, or in the fact that facilities sometimes become the stakes in the power struggle between certain public services or groups in the community.

129. Without going as far as a legalistic analysis of the organisational systems of co-ordination, which are very varied, it will be useful to review a number of important distinctions to the extent that the use of facilities depends on them. The first is that existing, or to be drawn, between political power and management power. The former decides on choices, objectives, the allocation of resources and, in particular, the principles governing the use of facilities; the role of the latter being more executive and organisational. The problem of the distinction between these two powers was raised, in Yateley, by the Principal of the secondary school who did not want to serve on the body governing the Centre (wrongly called "management committee" and made up of elected representatives) in order to retain his freedom of opinion and technical decision.(1) In Grenoble, users claimed a greater share in political power whilst refusing to have any part in management power. This distinction is important for co-ordination in general - and the use of facilities in particular - which should, in principle, be based on a political decision so that management difficulties may be clearly resolved. The question of whether these two types of power may be exercised by the same body or not will not be discussed here.

130. Systems of organisation governing overall operation vary considerably, each project working out its own, and no attempt seems to have been made in any country to finalise a model structure for general application to the various co-ordinated projects. For the United States, Larry Molloy of Educational Facilities Laboratories, New York, identifies no less than six different models(2) and even in a centralised country like France, each project has a different administrative structure. Such structures cannot be discussed here to the extent that they are intelligible only by reference to their various political and administrative contexts but primarily because the purpose of these structures goes far beyond facilities problems and relates mainly to the organisation and management of all activities and the financing and staff they call for.

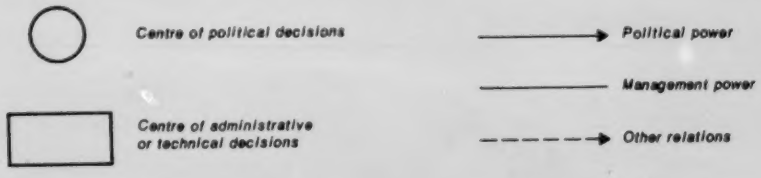
131. From the viewpoint that is of interest here, it would seem that the procedures used in the various structures can be boiled down to two main types - federative and integrative. In the former case, each sub-set of facilities is linked to an institution (school, sports centre, leisure

1) Hawkins, op.cit., paragraph 67.

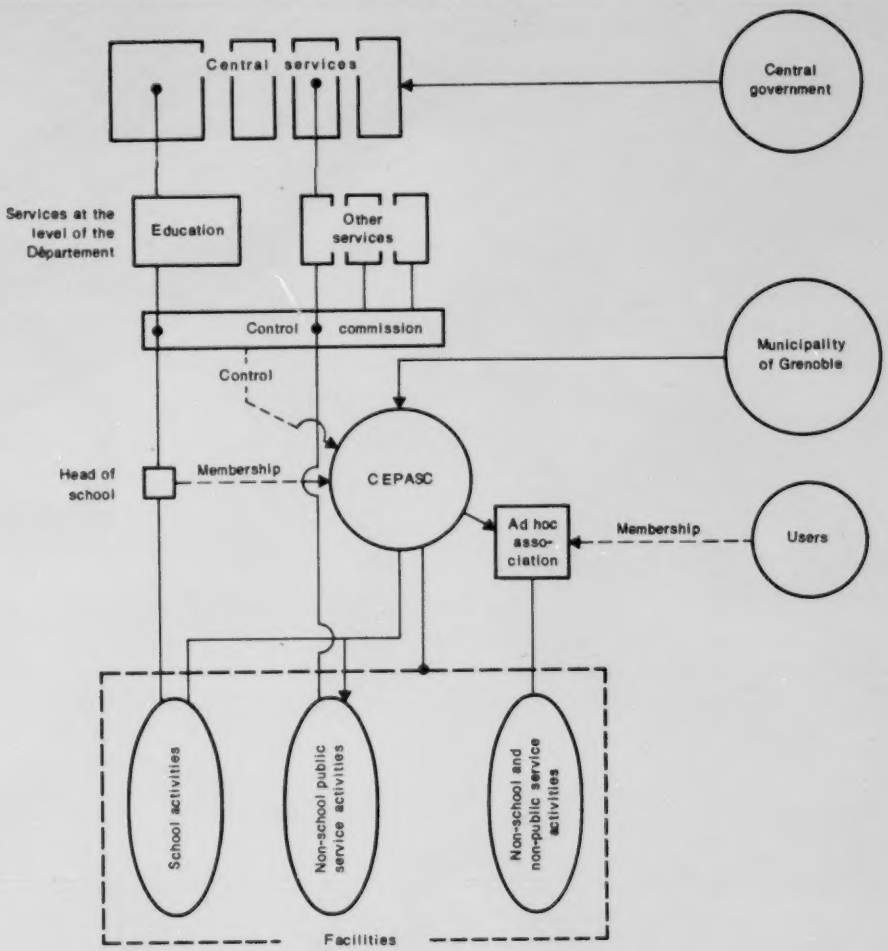
2) Molloy, op.cit., pages 70 to 79.

MODELS OF OPERATIONAL CO-ORDINATION

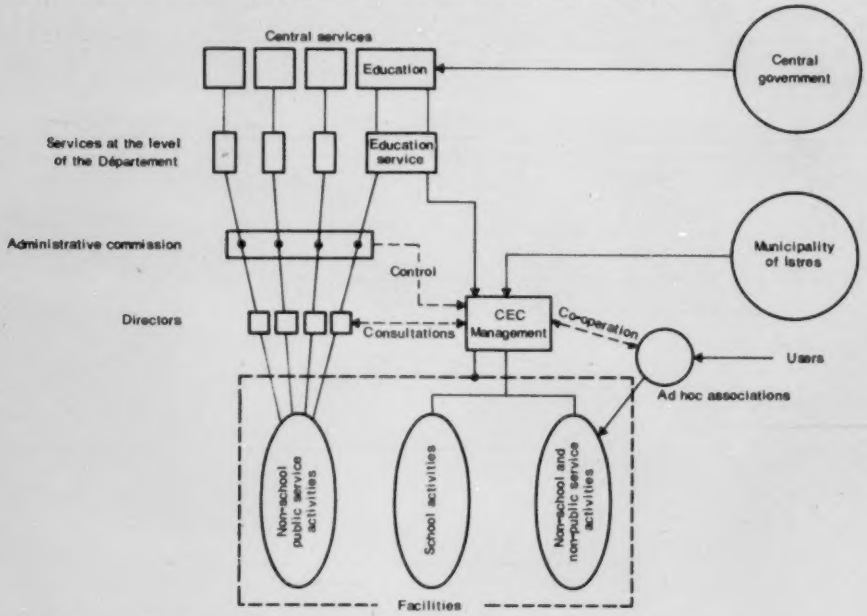
The following graphs show, in simplified form, the distribution of powers according to nature and levels of decision-making. Graphs 1 and 2 correspond to centralised contexts, graphs 4 to 7 to decentralised contexts and graph 3 to an intermediate context.



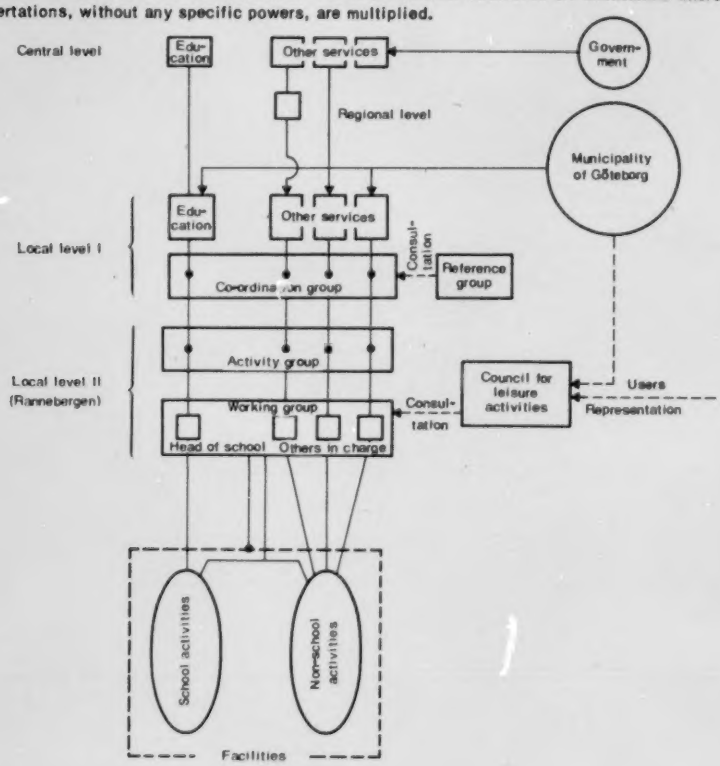
Graph 1 : GRENOBLE. Complex model in centralised context. The complexity comes from the fact that public service activities (including education), which are directly controlled by the administration, have to be distinguished from all other activities. Political power and management power are often merged. In this particular case, the co-ordination mechanism of the project (the Centre d'Education permanente et d'Animation sociale et culturelle - CEPASC) brings together both types of power, whereas the ad hoc association in fact only performs a management role.



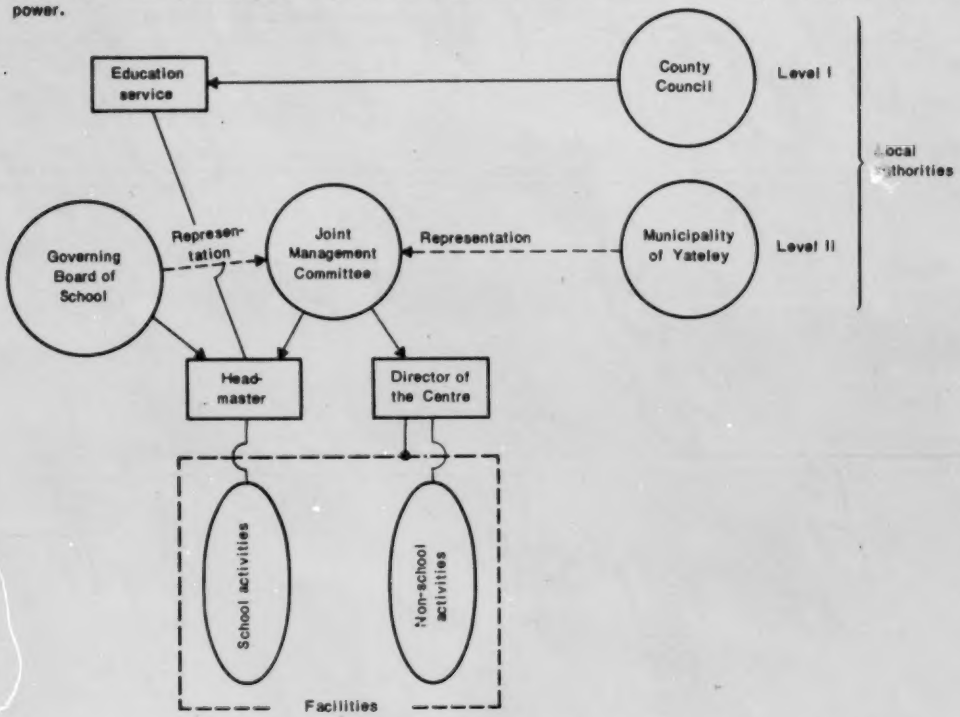
Graph 2 : ISTRES. Complex model in centralised context. Same characteristics as in the case of Grenoble but the Director General of the Centre éducatif et culturel (CEC) is at the same time the administrative head of the secondary school.



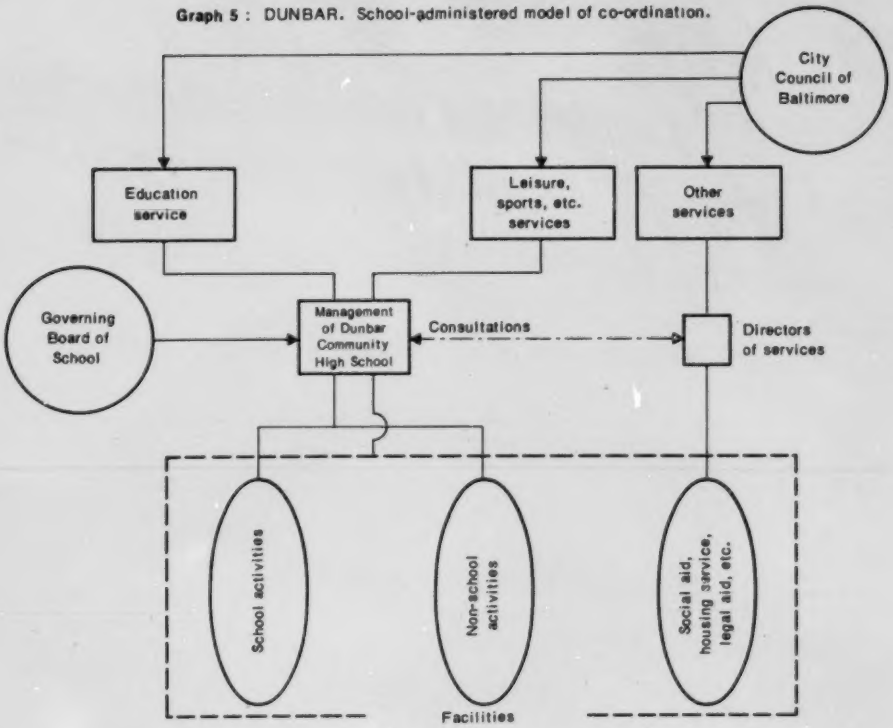
Graph 3 : RANNEBERGEN. Swedish model of co-ordination. The usual vertical structures are maintained whereas horizontal structures of concertations, without any specific powers, are multiplied.



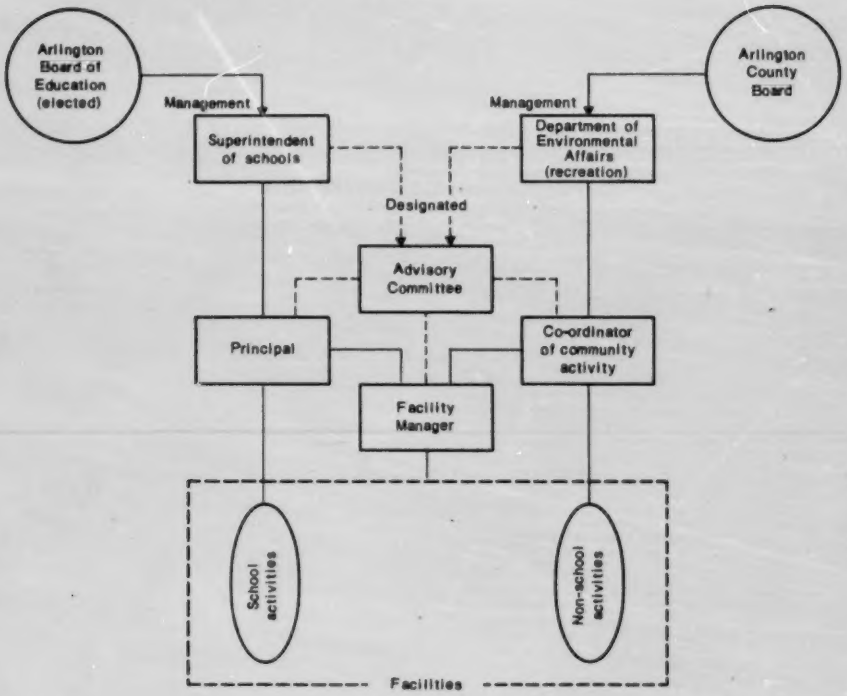
Graph 4 : YATELEY. Model of co-ordination in a decentralised context, which clearly distinguishes political power from management power.



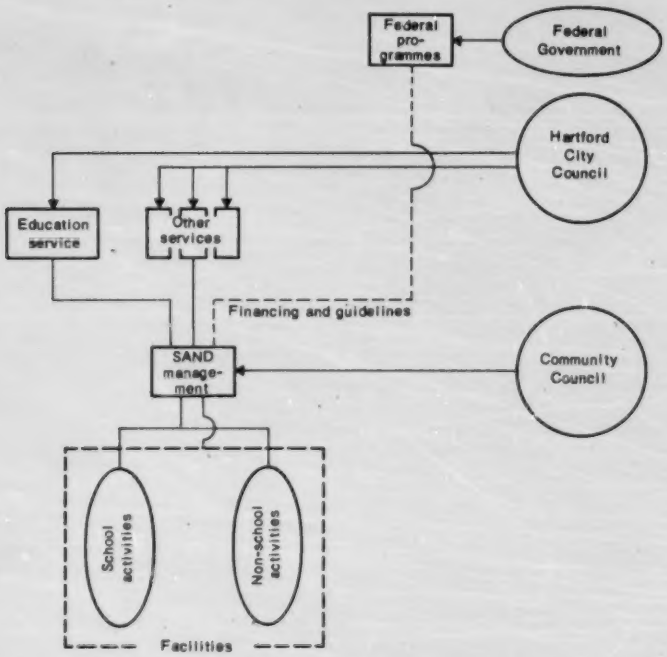
Graph 5 : DUNBAR. School-administered model of co-ordination.



Graph 6 : ARLINGTON. A facility manager model of co-ordination.



Graph 7 : SAND. A Community Council model of co-ordination.



centre, social service, etc.) which is its priority occupant and responsible for it, regardless of the pattern of ownership. A system of mutual exchange of services then enables the use of the facilities to be organised on a joint or shared basis. This system is generally governed by the management of the project which is able to control joint use directly. In the integrative procedures there is no formal relationship between the facilities and their users. The use of all the facilities is controlled by the same body which provides them to users (internal functional sets, school establishments, clubs, and outside groups or applicants) in accordance with jointly framed rules and in response to needs and requests. In all projects, shared use of facilities is more prevalent than joint use of the same sub-set of facilities but in the integrative type of procedure the latter form of use seems to be more frequent and full utilisation of facilities is more easy - and often more flexible - to organise.

132. The use of facilities, but more so their material management (maintenance, conversions, distribution of service charges), also depends on their legal status. The great variety that exists in this respect as well may be reduced to a small number of simple distinctions between the various systems:

The single ownership system seems to offer the greatest potential. All the facilities have the same owner (the municipality, for example) and this simplifies many maintenance and conversion problems and makes for great flexibility in management. Rannebergen is a case in point; there the single owner is the building society which lets the facilities out to the various services and distributes the service charges. But this unification is not possible in all cases because of the attachment of some partners to ownership or because of an administrative obligation on them to retain it.

When the single owner has the financial rights he can charge a rental for any use that is made of the facilities by outsiders: associations or groups in the community, families holding receptions or parties, and firms or private people. This system is widespread in the United States.

At Istres a co-ownership system involving three authorities has been instituted for one of the blocks in the complex. It operates under the provisions of private law and the administrative officer of the Centre acts as trustee.

In most cases, however, there is a mixed system (but does the word system then still apply?) in which the rules and status of the various co-ordinated facilities differ to a greater or lesser extent,

often leading to confused and sometimes inextricable situations causing many difficulties.

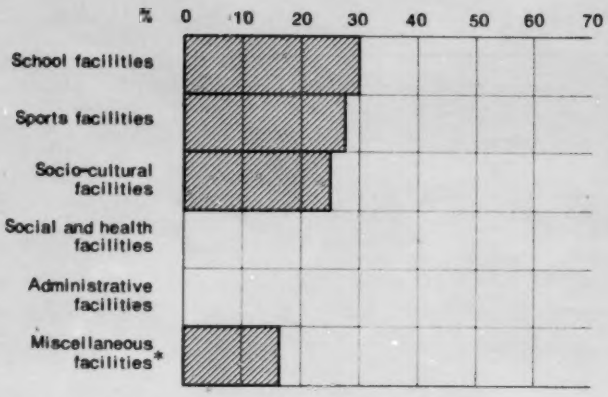
Role and Status of the School: Effects on the Use of Facilities

133. In all the cases studied, the school, objectively, is the dominant partner. This is true, firstly, in physical terms: school facilities are the largest in co-ordinated projects and represent the biggest investment; the school is often regarded, in co-ordination, as the main provider of accommodation. It is also true in terms of staff: teachers form the largest category in numbers and often have a stronger esprit de corps than the other categories. It may also be apparent at administrative level since the school management, in fact or by right, carries more weight in the policy or management bodies. In many countries it is felt that overall management in most projects should be vested in the school principal. Lastly, the status of the school in the community strengthens its dominant position. It is there for everyone and every family feels more directly concerned by the school than by any other institution.

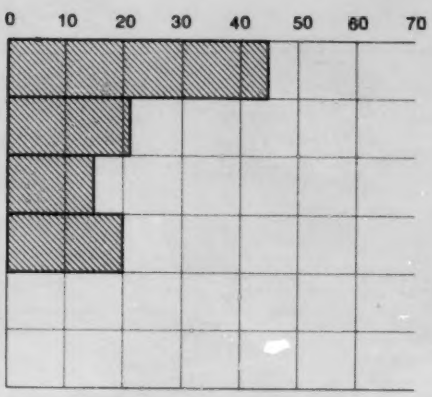
134. This dominant position of the school has major effects on the use of facilities and on the participation of non-school publics in the activities of the co-ordinated facilities. It has already been pointed out, in paragraph 36, that the role of the school in co-ordination varied, with context, in relation to its social image and prestige. The meaning of this general remark in the present context is that the effects of the status of the school on use and participation vary from one situation to another. Where the prestige of the school is hardly challenged and its image favourable, the dominant position of the school increases participation but where the image is negative it becomes an obstacle. More important still is the fact that, in the same context, the image of the school varies from one social group or category to the next so that, without it being wanted or realised, this image has a selective effect on the public using the co-ordinated facilities. At Istres, for example, it was noted that mothers in the poorer families hesitated to visit the health centre in the Centre éducatif et culturel because they associated it with the school, their image of which was all the more unfavourable the greater the difficulties of their children in school. These comments confirm what has been said with regard to the symbolic function of facilities. The image given to a co-ordinated project - or which in any case it assumes - must be regarded as an important factor in its real utility. The status of the school may also affect modes of use. Where it reinforces the traditional models of school activity these may extend to all activities so that the structured and institutionalised activities, the needs of which

PROPORTION OF SCHOOL ACCOMMODATION IN CO-ORDINATED FACILITIES PROJECTS
(as a percentage of total area)

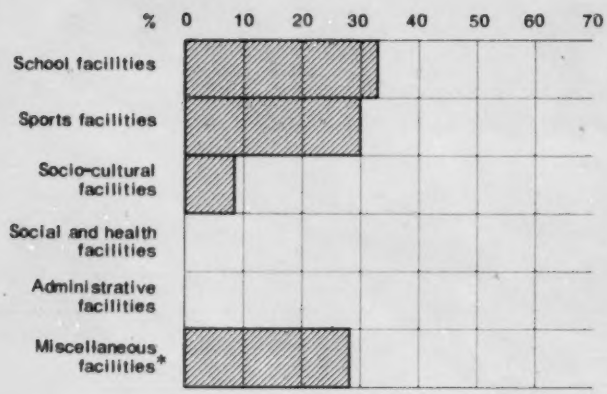
GRENOBLE,
Maison de quartier de l'Arlequin
(net areas according
to initial plan)



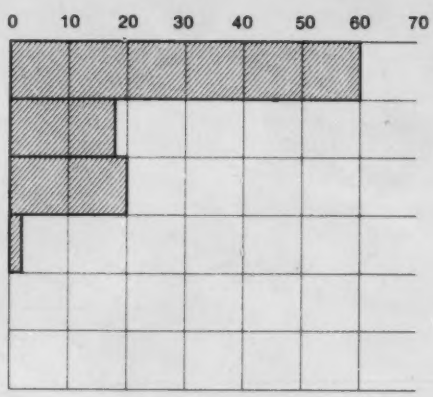
ISTRES,
Centre éducatif et culturel



RANNEBERGEN CENTRUM

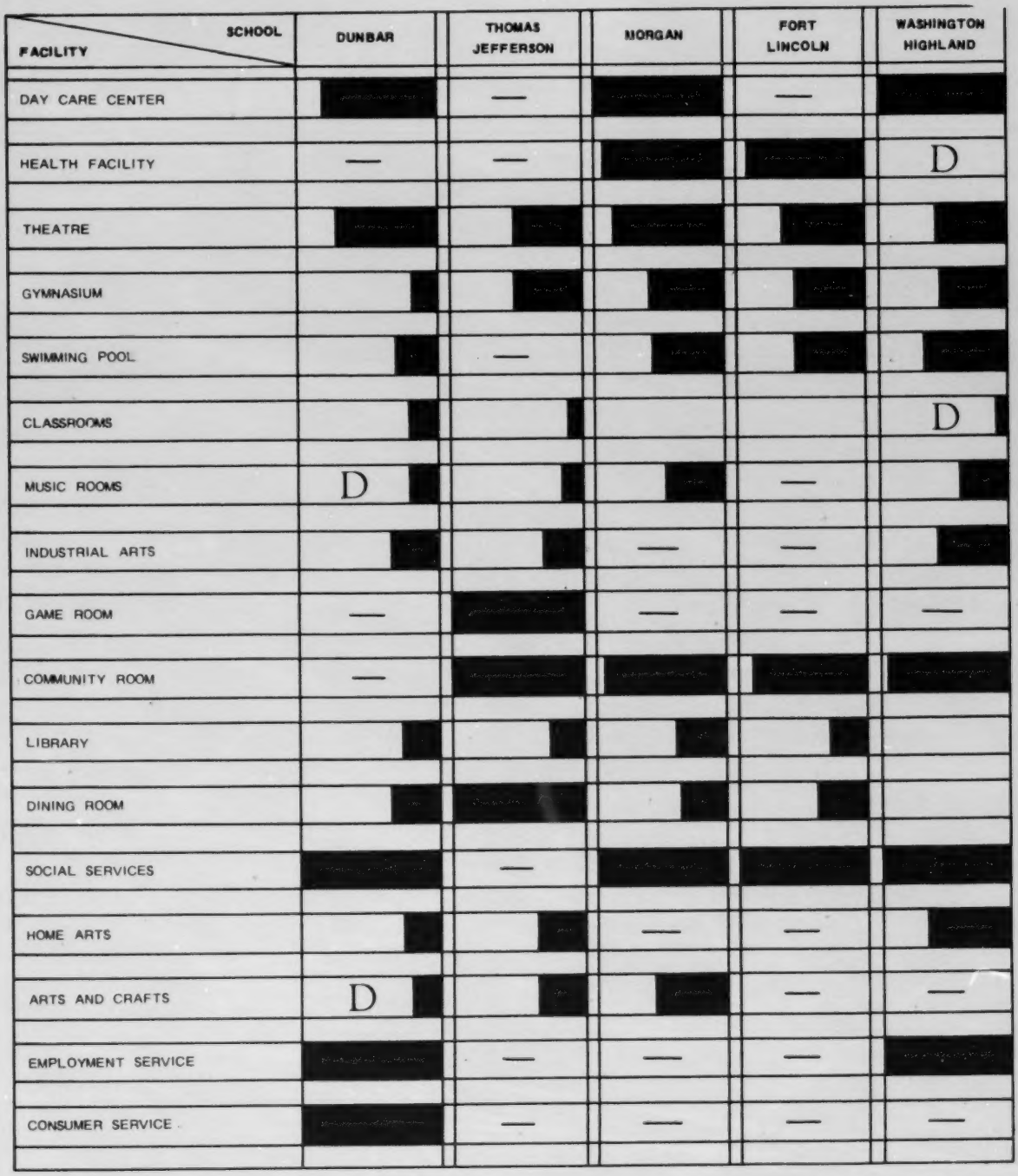


VÄSTRA FRÖLUNDA



* Joint facilities, including the restaurant.

SCHOOL AND NON-SCHOOL USE OF FACILITIES (UNITED STATES)



Source : «Educational Facilities and the Community», report prepared for UNESCO by G.A. Skiadaressis (unpublished), page 96.

in terms of facilities are easily established will take precedence over free activities.

135. The importance of the school in co-ordination is also bound up with the priority generally conceded to school use of facilities. This priority is first of all a question of time. School time is structured in a clear but rigid manner. As a general rule, the use of school facilities by non-school publics is confined to hours outside the school timetable, in other words time for non-school use is residual in relation to school time. Unfortunately this simple pattern no longer suits the needs that arise nowadays in co-ordination. The best times for leisure or community activities for unemployed mothers, for example, are when their children are at school. New developments in continuous training increasingly involve full-time courses and the adults involved use the integrated facilities at the same time as pupils. It might be imagined that adjustments to school timetables might provide an answer to the difficulties of competition these situations give rise to but in a society where the rythm of school life is having an increasing effect on social life this is just a pious hope. Other solutions will therefore have to be found not limited to the oversimplified formula of full utilisation based on the successive occupation of the premises by pupils and non-school publics. At Istres, the educational facilities are shared, during the daytime, between pupils and adults undergoing training. At Abraham Moss, joint courses are organised for pupils at secondary level and adults undergoing further education with simultaneous use of the science rooms, for example, which are appropriately designed.

136. The priority nature of school activities may be reflected in other ways. The point is that it has to allow for the specific needs of children which are not the same, for example, in primary and secondary schools. It is generally recognised that in the former it is more necessary to provide pupils with accommodation having a domestic character and to reserve exclusively for them a greater number of areas, or to isolate some of their activities more completely. These considerations have to be taken into account when the links between the facilities are being planned. It has been seen, for example, (paragraph 64), that the proximity between the activities of the Pontiac primary school and those of the employment bureau proved inacceptable, primarily because of the transparency built into the facilities when the centre was designed. A different approach was taken at Dunbar where the social services are grouped in a wing completely separate from the school facilities.

137. A last type of influence of the status of the school on the use of facilities is bound up with the differences between school and non-school

activities. A first point is that participation in the former is compulsory but only voluntary in the latter. This simple difference has many consequences. In a co-ordinated project, the conditions of access are far more important than in a school. Adults wanting to participate in the life of co-ordinated facilities are not compelled to come and must not therefore be discouraged by transport or parking difficulties (participation at Pontiac is greatly restricted by the shortage of parking places particularly during the daytime when those that are provided are used by the teachers). Closeness between the facilities and housing is another decisive factor, whereas badly located sites have long been accepted for schools. For the same reasons, reception conditions assume far more importance than that generally given them in the design of schools. As a result considerable importance is attached not only to the quality of the internal environment provided by the co-ordinated facilities but also to the human relations implied by the reception function. It is clear therefore that the image of the facilities and their symbolic function plays an important role. Another point is that users must be provided with the means to see where they are and to find their way in the various parts of the co-ordinated facilities in accordance with their interests, whereas this problem is solved in a different way for school children attending school daily and going to their various destinations in accordance with a strict timetable. Finally, some members of the public will be coming not for any specific activity but just to be there. Places for doing nothing, like meeting points,and focal centres of social life like bars, a veranda or a corner for lounging, also have their place in a co-ordinated complex.

138. One last consequence: in planning a school it is relatively simple to determine the number of places required by tailoring the resources provided to a foreseeable operation. In co-ordinated projects where facilities are open to users whose attendance is not compulsory, this procedure cannot be used. From the studies made of the way facilities are used, it is clear that quantification has to be based rather on "peak periods" which cannot be eliminated or reduced as they are in school timetables. This means finding new methods for determining the size of facilities. It also implies the need to review the notion of full utilisation in the light of this discontinuity and irregularity typical of adult participation.

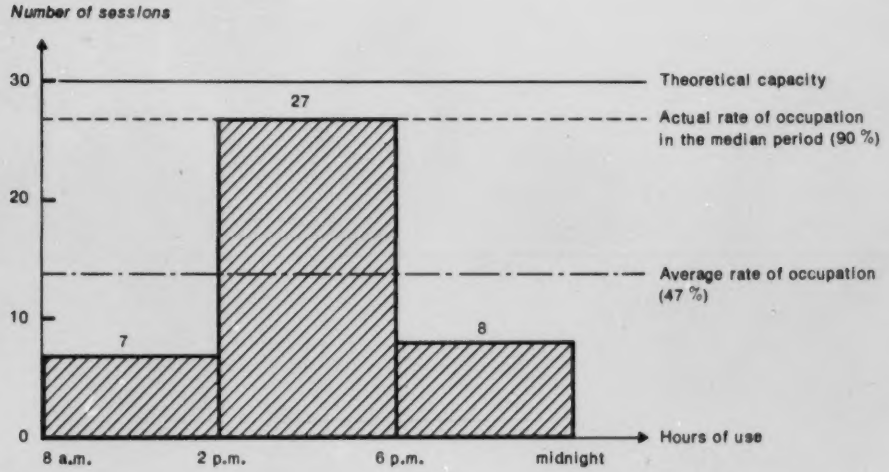
The Nature and Design of Facilities and Co-ordinated Use

139. Although the nature of the facilities is only a secondary feature in determining their use, the latter highlights a number of problems

PEAK PERIODS IN THE USE OF FACILITIES

Graph showing the use of the encounter room in the Istres CEC (multi-purpose room used for exhibitions, meetings, rehearsals, conferences, etc.).

Breakdown of the average number of monthly sessions (a session = two hours to half-a-day) according to period of the day.



Theoretical capacity = the maximum possible number of sessions per month on the assumption of full-time use (from 8 a.m. to midnight every day).

deriving from their design. The design of co-ordinated facilities thus raises specific questions bound up with the joint and shared use for which they should be suitable. The answers found to these questions have no value as models and this is no place to judge their quality. It is when they are in use and confronted with reality that one can see the questions that their designers endeavoured to answer and those that they ought perhaps to have asked themselves.

140. A first series of questions arises with regard to the multiple uses made of facilities and the facilities intended to accommodate various activities (multi-purpose facilities) or different publics (general use facilities). Although the two characteristics may be combined should they, even so, be confused with one another? The primary school open areas found in the Pontiac and Mack School projects are multi-purpose. They accommodate many educational activities and include, inter alia, a resource centre, group meeting areas and individual work stations but they are for the sole use of the pupils of the school. Although they are directly linked to the community facilities, they are rarely used by adults or young people except for certain, very occasional, events for which they have to be rearranged each time. Conversely, in many projects, classrooms which also have a non-school use provide for only one type of activity.

141. The questions arising in co-ordination are mainly those which concern the variety of users. Multi-purpose use, in fact, is to be found in many non-co-ordinated facilities. However, it is not easy to define the qualities which make facilities suitable for such use. At Grenoble, the teaching areas were designed to provide an unusual environment for the pupil's activities and a working setting closer to the requirements of social life (a certain degree of comfort and intimateness, very pleasant high-level lighting). The purpose of the design was to bring about new relations in education but it proved particularly favourable to adult activities for which the rooms are much in demand, whilst the attitude of the teachers is, if anything, negative. It would seem, therefore, that what makes these rooms attractive for adult activities is precisely what is regarded as a constraint by the teachers. As we know, it is generally the reverse that happens. In the Berlin community schools, many classrooms are left unused in the evening by adults because they are too neutral. But when some groups decorate them they are regarded by the others as reserved rooms. Design would therefore seem to be at grips with the tension between the need to preserve a certain neutrality in the rooms so that they are suitable for several users and the need to give them some degree of personality if they are really to be used.

142. Another question is the extent to which the various users and uses of one and the same type of facilities can be multiplied. Considering the poverty or bareness of certain multi-purpose areas or the failure of attempts to make an area suitable for the biggest possible number of uses it may be wondered whether it would not be better to call a halt when multi-purpose use means having to accept low-quality accommodation. In addition, would it not be possible to design multi-purpose facilities in a prospect of change so that the multi-purpose nature of a facility would be less of a once-for-all answer than one moment in the users' gradual conquest of the facilities? Multi-purpose facilities would then be primarily the places in which users could explore their own needs, eventually selecting the place that would best suit those needs. This idea is based on the fact that groups, in practically every case, go through a process of change in their relations with the facilities. Not each group finds its proper place straight away. Should the objective of co-ordinated facilities be to save the trouble of seeking co-ordination or to allow it to arrive at it gradually?

143. The young misfits who had taken over the multi-purpose hall (paragraph 128) had, in fact, nowhere else to go and could not find their proper place. This raises the question of whether, in order to improve

communications between groups and to bring those who do not know each other into contact, it is not also necessary to provide the various groups with ways and means of differentiating themselves and asserting their own identity. A relevant point here is that co-ordination of facilities has changed course in the United States. In the late 60's the hope was that the solid and compact grouping of facilities and their interpenetration would help to give new life to the unity of the community. This is now doubted and the policy is to provide smaller-size facilities in which the objective is less to have everything communicating with everything else and rather to personalise the different areas and identify them better in order to co-ordinate them better.

144. When a known type of facility, whether multi-purpose or not, is provided in a co-ordinated project, how does co-ordination alter its design? Dunbar includes a theatre. The original purpose of this complex was to provide a community centre for a very deprived community. The building of the theatre and the music rooms altered this objective and these facilities were built to a professional level that went far beyond the community's concrete needs. Today their use is very similar to that of any other theatre. At Istres there is now a lively argument, regarding the design of the future theatre, between the advocates of simplicity and robustness for maximum multi-purpose use and the defenders of the nobility and technicality of cultural activities. In fact, and this is a comment that could be extended to other cases, each type of facility is drawn from an established model from which it is difficult to dissociate it so that it can be made to fit the requirements of co-ordination with which these models are rarely compatible.

145. The same problem also occurs when it is a question of defining the various facilities whilst at the same time taking into account those available outside the co-ordinated project. Paragraph 24 referred to the case of a school that changed immediately it began to use dispersed educational resources outside. Reverting to the example of the theatre, if there is another theatre in the vicinity will the one in the co-ordinated project have the same characteristics as if there were none? The SAND multi-instructional areas may look as though they are relatively poor schools but in fact they are designed in relation to the use they will make of the dispersed arts centre and information and resource centre in their district.

146. Lastly, a field that is too often disregarded in co-ordination is that of the details which are never given their due importance although they are often the stumbling block on which co-ordinated use comes to

grief. The use of art/craft workshops, or specialised domestic science or home economics rooms may fail to develop, or cause disputes, for lack of adequate storage facilities in which to keep very vulnerable work-in-progress from one session to the next. Badly co-ordinated programmes may by chance lead to duplicate boiler houses whereas, on the other hand, it may be impossible, when only one part of the building is used, to limit lighting and heating just to that part. This shortcoming becomes even more unacceptable when rigour gives place to wastage as regards energy. The last example relates to the swimming pool at Abraham Moss. When used by the school there is every likelihood that there will be as many girls as boys but when used by non-school groups of young people, adults or old people this is no longer the case. The symmetry of the changing rooms then leads to under-utilisation on the one side and to a bottleneck on the other. The problem was solved by a system of convertible changing rooms.

Costs and Benefits

147. In the foregoing paragraphs stress has been laid on the main relationships between the use of facilities on the one hand and the modes of organisation, role and status of the school and design of facilities on the other. In addition consideration has been given to the extent to which the design of facilities could and should take these relationships into account in the framework of co-ordination. The observations arising from this examination point to a number of paths that should be followed and explored in the evaluation of specific projects. The various case studies, however, show that there has rarely been any attempt at evaluation. Only three part studies in the form of unpublished papers have been traced.(1) They are largely purely descriptive and only one of them has an original method to propose, which is however confined to the area of cost evaluation that is its only subject. This absence of evaluation studies is certainly regrettable. It would seem to be due to two causes. Most projects would still appear to be in the exploratory phase and not to have reached the level of maturity necessary for an evaluation to be significant, particularly since the effects expected from co-ordination - such as they

1) Pontiac Human Resources Center, "Fiscal analysis, unpublished draft for the Educational Facilities Laboratories New York", 1975. Cf. Kennedy, op. cit., paragraph 70.

"Comparaison des coûts d'un équipement intégré : le Centre éducatif et culturel d'Istres et des équipements similaires éclatés", unpublished report, Istres 1975.

"Better than a Baby Sitter, a Progress Report on the Abraham Moss Centre, Manchester", DES, London 1975.

may be deduced from the objectives of the projects - are by their very nature slow to emerge. In addition, evaluation procedures, only rarely developed for traditional facilities, would seem to be much more complex and difficult to perfect in the case of co-ordinated facilities. However, project evaluation will be necessary when it becomes a matter of moving on from individual projects to the definition of co-ordination at the level of general policies for facilities provision. It may therefore be assumed that if the interest aroused by co-ordination projects is sustained, evaluation will be one of the key problems in policies for co-ordinated facilities in the years to come.

148. The complexity of the problem and the fact - observed from the case studies - that it is not yet really ripe has resulted in a failure to treat it in its true dimensions in the framework of a consolidated report which was to cover a large number of aspects and assign an important role to information. However, evaluation questions need to be tackled, before concluding this report, from a new and particular viewpoint. It has been seen, at the level of motivations and in the framework of the justifications and negotiations characteristic of the first steps taken in the projects that co-ordination is viewed and presented as a source of certain advantages that it is expected to provide. It is therefore necessary to see, finally, whether the expected advantages have materialised. It will be clear, in fact, that this question cannot be answered by a simple yes or not and that the extent to which the advantages can be realised has to be gauged in relative terms. But this question allows the study of evaluation problems to be taken a little further, particularly by showing that evaluation should largely consist in confronting what co-ordination demands with what it permits.

149. One of the first questions arising is that of costs. It is also one of the first arguments advanced in defence or justification of the projects. By co-ordinating the building of a number of facilities it should be possible to reduce investment costs and by co-ordinating their use it should be possible to reduce operating costs. The studies made in order to test these assumptions with regard to the projects that have been implemented are disappointing. First of all they are few in number and those that are known all answer in the affirmative.(1) Some - as in the case of Rannebergen - have been made at planning level, in other words before implementation.

1) Examples: the Pontiac report assesses the savings made at $360 000 for a total expenditure of $2 178 000. Cf. Kennedy, op. cit., paragraph 70. The Istres study shows that, by comparison with reference facilities, integrated facilities cost less, the difference possibly being as much as 20%.

But the most questionable feature of these studies is the method itself since they are based on a comparison between co-ordinated facilities and similar facilities that could have been built separately. But are the terms that are compared really comparable? In the case of juxtaposed facilities (paragraph 107) comparison would not seem to present any insurmountable difficulties since each facility can be identified and the changes made to it because of co-ordination easily traced. But in the case of intersection-type facilities (paragraph 109) or integrated facilities (paragraph 110) it is far more difficult to know what is being compared. Is it right to use an isolated facility as a reference for evaluating another the essential characteristic of which is to be part of a set that cannot be defined by the sum of its component parts? Co-ordination of facilities predicates that the complexes or networks that are created have a different significance and effect from those of an aggregate of separate facilities. Whilst it is therefore always possible to compare the investment outlay for a set of facilities with the total of the part investments that would be necessary to build separate facilities, the validy of a comparison, the terms of which are not fixed, is questionable since it could mean that the specific character of co-ordination situations which are radically different from those in which facilities are separate and independent of one another might possibly be disregarded.

150. Many of those who have attempted such comparisons agree that the question is wrongly put. An example is the Yateley situation where additional appropriations were allocated by the municipality so that the projected school facilities could be adapted for community use. If the cost of the drama room as built, for example, is compared with that of what would have been provided for school needs alone it is unquestionably higher, but if the additional cost to the municipality is compared with what it would have had to pay for separate community facilities it is much lower; in any case, in view of its resources, the municipality could not possibly have contemplated a project of separate facilities. More generally, in most cases, the real problem is to get the best possible use and derive maximum return from a financial envelope determined by the participation of authorities or agencies which would have had to provide separate facilities in a different situation. The problem of comparison does not, in these conditions, arise in operational terms. The inadequate nature of such comparisons is even more manifest when it comes to operating costs since the types of activity and service provided are unquestionably more numerous and varied in co-ordinated projects than in individual facilities.

151. Many authorities have today switched from an accountant's approach to one of policy by endeavouring to relate investment costs to services provided, in other words to compare these with their objectives in order to see to what extent the objectives have been attained. There are hardly any established methods for this approach. Mention might, however, be made of that used at Istres to express in quantitative terms this relationship between costs and services provided. The study compared the costs of the CEC to those of certain reference facilities. It then looked for indicators to express this comparison. On the assumption that, through co-ordination, each institution corresponding to a facility (the school establishment for example) has a larger and quantifiable area since it uses the resources of the other facilities, a first indicator $\frac{\text{investment}}{\text{available area}}$ provides a comparison between the reference establishment and the corresponding facility in the co-ordinated project. Another indicator is provided by the $\frac{\text{investment}}{\text{hours open per year}}$ ratio, and relates to the full utilisation objective. Similarly, in order to take operating costs into account, the comparison included the $\frac{\text{operating costs}}{\text{hours open}}$ indicator.

152. The limitation on such a study is that it may be wondered whether the findings are not already to be found in the assumptions it makes. But its value is that it puts a figure to the extra services that co-ordination may be expected to give. It also indicates a line of research that should be pursued and taken to greater depth so that cost analysis methods (knowing exactly what is spent and where) may be applied to a new situation.

153. An argument sometimes levelled against co-ordination is that it involves extra costs and it is true that the projects give rise to spending that would not have occurred in the case of other facilities, e.g. on preparatory studies or design studies, and in some countries, one might add the hidden cost - that cannot be accounted for - of the participation of public servants in this work. But is it right to regard this expenditure as additional co-ordination costs? The truth is that the problems of preliminary studies and design costs arise in relation to all types of facility, whether co-ordinated or not. It is simply that in the case of unco-ordinated facilities it is easier to do without this expenditure particularly because of the tendency to reproduce what has been done before or to proceed by serial building or to use systems the development cost of which is separate from investment cost. All these approaches are difficult to apply in the case of co-ordination. From this viewpoint, co-ordination purely raises the problem of how to integrate innovation costs (mainly the studies that innovation involves) in a facilities policy and how to distribute such costs. The only criterion that would seem to be acceptable for

operating costs is that of the services provided for a given expenditure. The question of whether co-ordination involves additional costs from this viewpoint is therefore a false problem. The only questions that are justified in this case are of two kinds: does the community in the wide sense wish to provide users with more and better services and what is the real cost of the services performed in the framework of co-ordinatation. It is clear that the formulation of criteria or the identification of indicators enabling a reply to be given to these questions is far from being finalised so that the evaluation of the advantages of co-ordination must depend on political and social choices and options which go beyond the problems of facilities themselves.

154. Although there is no question of attempting to formulate such criteria or indicators in this report the point may be made - at a less ambitious level - that co-ordination of facilities can and should be assessed first of all in terms of the qualitative aspects of the effects expected from it. The only evidence of this kind that can be adduced is the more or less general agreement among the officials interviewed on a number of points. The first concerns the effects of co-ordination on the school. The importance of these effects and the attention paid them is generally proportional to the importance which the objectives of a project accord to the transformation of the school. Some American projects, for example, are built up around objectives of this kind and the educational renewal of the school institution is patently the most spectacular and important result of the co-ordination of facilities. Apart from these cases, it may also be said - as a general conclusion - that educational innovation is a significant feature of all the projects even though in some cases it tends to be in arrears of broader educational objectives, social objectives and development of the non-school activities in the projects. Evaluation in this area goes beyond the framework of this report which is specifically concerned with facilities. In particular it could consider the scale of this transformation of the school and assess the extent to which it may be attributed to co-ordination or whether the co-ordinated project merely provides a favourable setting for a process of change caused by other factors. More effectively, it could relate to the nature of changes in teaching/learning methods and curricula, pinpoint the specific characteristics of the effects of co-ordination on the changes observed and study to what extent the school's educational objectives are compatible with the other objectives of the projects as well as the nature of any conflicts emerging in practice between these objectives.

155. To confine the discussion to problems of facilities, an evaluation should be made of the additional resources that the school's educational activity derives from co-ordination. The case studies do not allow any systematic evaluation of this kind to be made but empirical observation provides a number of elements in answer to this question so that the overall conclusion on this point is definitely positive. The schools benefit from their use of facilities the scale and nature of which are out of all proportion with those available to non-co-ordinated schools of the same level and in the same context. Conversely the cost of these additional resources is not necessarily borne by the school and even when the cost to the school is thereby increased that increase does not appear to be proportional to the new resources it enjoys. A finer analysis could well study this ratio between the additional resources provided for the school and any costs it has to bear on that account, and more generally the ratio between the school's investment and operating costs and the aggregate resources effectively available to it. One of the advantages of such an evaluation would no doubt be that it would state the problem of the possible generalisation of the advantages of co-ordination for the school. To what extent, in a given context, could school activities - even in the absence of co-ordinated facilities - benefit from the partial or shared use of non-school facilities?

156. Another appreciable effect of co-ordination would seem to be that it generates a significant increase in the use of community facilities by the population and therefore betters the return on the investment involved. In quantitative terms the results recorded are in many cases impressive. The number of non-school participants in the activities of the Thomas Jefferson Center at Arlington, for example, are put at 42 000 a month.(1) A detailed study during a test week at the Centre éducatif et culturel at Istres indicates that 9 100 different people took part in the activities of the centre, including the 850 secondary school pupils.(2) These are only examples but the trend they illustrate is more or less general and, overall, it is safe to say that, given the same context, co-ordinated facilities are used more than similar unco-ordinated facilities. The overall figures compiled, however, do not allow any finer analysis to be made and raise a number of questions. First of all there are some exceptions to the trend, one example being Rannebergen where the facilities as a whole are under-utilised; the reasons for this are not clear but the

1) Kennedy, op. cit., table 4.

2) Le Boterf, op. cit., paragraph 143.

attitude of the staff would appear to be an important factor. In addition the exact significance to be attached to the figures produced in an attempt to express results is not known. There are no accurate indicators and no units of measurement for this participation, which in any case would need to be differentiated. Is it possible to treat on the same level such differing types of use as - to take an example - a consultation at the health centre and attendance at an adult course or a community fête? The difficulties of comparison are to be found also in this respect. From the participation viewpoint it is often difficult to compare co-ordination situations with those in which facilities are separate, particularly because a range of facilities is often built that is rarely available otherwise.

157. The evaluation necessary in this area is a matter for sociologists since purely economic criteria are quickly exhausted. In any case they should be looked at with a critical eye. It would be useful, for example, to know whether the full utilisation criterion (100 per cent use of capacity for 100 per cent of available time) is a clear expression of the real use of the facilities. It would also be helpful to know whether this should be the main criterion or whether it should not be supplemented or replaced by others such as the extent to which demand is met at the point and at the time it occurs. The evaluation of facilities should therefore be a part of a broader evaluation relating to educational and social action and its effects. It is with the development of this type of evaluation that the evaluation of facilities could take more definite shape and that the essential question could be studied, namely: to what extent are co-ordinated facilities suitable instruments for this action and more specifically - in the light of the resources applied - to what extent are they the best for the purpose.

158. The effects of co-ordination can also be detected in other fields such as the human environment. Although it seems difficult to test the assumptions with any thoroughness on the basis of the observations made they do yield certain general indications which would need a finer evaluation for proper analysis but which already give positive evidence of the reality of certain effects. It is significant, for example, that among recent housing developments in the Göteborg suburbs, Rannebergen is the only one where all housing units are now occupied. The attraction of Villeneuve, Grenoble, for certain social groups is definitely bound up with the presence of the type of facilities found there. In many American towns, people who had left them for the suburbs are now returning to redevloped town centres where co-ordinated facilities are an important feature. A study made at Ann Arbor suggests that there is a significant correlation between the provision of

community facilities and trends in the price of building land in neighbouring areas. Of course all these items of information should be regarded as starting points for farther reaching evaluation studies in which the co-ordination of facilities should be seen as one of the many factors responsible for generating the observed effects. All the above comments are therefore in no way an attempt to draw up a balance sheet for the co-ordination of facilities. Instead they point to the different dimensions of co-ordination situations that such a balance sheet - in the form of a serious evaluation the definition of which could well be the subject of subsequent work in the OECD Programme on Educational Building - should explore.

Part Five
SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

159. The purpose of the following paragraphs is to draw the attention of those for whom this report is primarily intended to a number of key points arising out of the earlier chapters. As the reports suggests the development of co-ordinated facilities projects is an important milestone in the evolution of policies on community facilities and, hence on educational building. It therefore seemed desirable to single out the considerations that should be taken into account by those responsible for this evolution when deciding on their attitude towards such projects and, towards co-ordination policies in general.

160. This attitude will depend on options that cannot be discussed here but in simple terms it may generally be said to lie between two extremes: that in which the object is to frame - at the level of an area of responsibility (national, regional or local) - a coherent policy for the co-ordination of all social services of which the co-ordination of facilities then becomes a part, and the more empirical attitude of making use of the lessons learned from experience in the co-ordination of facilities to alter certain aspects of sectoral policies, in particular school building policies. The conclusions set out below do not predicate the options to be taken but they will, no doubt, put them in a clearer light.

Policy and Its Dimensions

161. The first conclusion is of a general nature: problems of facilities co-ordination can no longer be evaded by those responsible for school building policies. In all the projects studied the significance of co-ordination, its advantages and its effects are all connected with a common attitude - that of handling the problems of each individual facility from the overall viewpoint and no longer from that confined to the specific needs it is intended to meet. The question now is therefore to what extent school building problems can be solved in the framework of the requirements of the educational system alone and to what extent they must take broader needs into account.

162. By implication, this underlines the interdependence between educational activities and those of the other community functions; it implies that school building projects - whether at the level of individual projects or at policy level - have to be defined in the framework of an overall approach to the problem of meeting all the differentiated needs of a population. In other words it has to allow for the requirements generated by the enlargement of educational needs, the demands on the school from the other social services, the need to combat segregation and social segmentation and the demand, voiced with increasing force, for an improvement in the human environment.

163. The provision of school facilities should be determined not only by educational requirements as such but also by the necessity for the rational use of all material resources available for meeting all the needs of the community. From the viewpoint of the community as a whole, a fair return on the investment in school buildings would no longer seem to be guaranteed purely by their use for school purposes. Conversely some educational requirements can be met by non-school facilities. Lastly, needs as regards community facilities are increasing rapidly and there is an imbalance between the various sectors of social action as far as the material possibilities of meeting them are concerned. Those responsible for educational building, therefore, will have to pay more and more regard to the complementarity between school facilities and other types of facility and to the need to ensure maximum use of the former. The measures that this should result in concern the planning of facilities (and in particular the criteria and procedures for school maps), the design of new facilities, and the adaptation and use of existing buildings - particularly when these exceed the quantitative needs of education.

164. Those responsible for school building programmes will therefore probably have to review the objectives on which their action is aligned or at least to frame them in relation to broader objectives involving decision-makers responsible for other types of facility as well. The latter objectives imply political and social choices which may be taken either at project level or at the level of facilities policies and two conditions are necessary: they have been defined on the basis of co-operation and negotiation between a large number of partners and they have to have the backing of the authorities with political responsibility at the level at which action is to be taken. One condition for the success of co-ordination projects or policies lies in the joint framing and in-depth discussion of their objectives both of which must be seen as a continuous process.

165. The operation of co-ordinated projects shows that facilities have to meet needs which are more numerous, more varied and changing more rapidly than those usually envisaged. Officials responsible for school building will probably therefore have to review and broaden their definition of the needs implied by the norms they use, and then possibly to change these norms and the way in which they are expressed in order to allow for the variety and nature of these needs. A thorough knowledge of the needs of the population served is another condition for the greater success of co-ordination projects and policies. Deepening this knowledge calls not only for the help of experts in social analysis but also and above all for the participation of the various categories of users concerned in the preparation of decisions. Project planning and policy implementation should make allowance for the resources and time required for these various preliminaries.

Institutional Arrangements

166. Co-ordination of community services - including educational services - may be defined at two levels: at the "point of use", where the activities which the facilities are to accommodate take shape, and at the level of the structures which allow these services to operate and govern their operation. Co-ordination of facilities mainly takes place at the former level but it also depends on the latter to the extent that it is not always possible to take all co-ordination decisions at the former level and the full resources necessary for their implementation are not always available. Co-ordination therefore calls for the appropriate arrangements at each level of decision involved but also for arrangements providing for the necessary liaison between these various levels.

167. Co-ordination of facilities implies a fairly high degree of autonomy for the authorities responsible at "use level", in other words the local authorities. Where the majority of decisions on facilities can be taken at local level the participation of local representatives of administrations or agencies in the development of projects is generally sufficient to ensure effective co-ordination, if not unification of responsibility. Conversely, where decisions are taken, or have to be approved, centrally, there are definite limitations on co-ordination at project level.

168. To the extent that they wish to promote a policy for facilities co-ordination, central authorities have a major role to play in the development of co-ordination projects and/or policies. This role will depend on policy choices and the political and administrative context. In highly centralised countries, co-ordination at project level cannot develop

unless co-ordination is also undertaken at the level of the central administration. In decentralised systems, action by the central authorities is more in the nature of encouragement. In all cases, however, the central authorities should make themselves responsible for the tasks of regulation (information of possible partners, harmonisation of systems of norms and co-ordination of conditions in which funds are granted), advice and support for local authorities which may not have the resources and skills necessary for planning and carrying out projects, and research and development.

169. New types of bodies for co-operation and concertation should be set up to promote co-ordination projects and policies. Their special feature will be the number of partners and interests they bring face to face with each other and which are far more numerous and varied than those brought together for school building projects when a dialogue between users and designers is organised. These bodies should enable many different interests to make themselves heard and should be given the power to handle problems of finance co-ordination and the programming, design and operation of co-ordination in the use of facilities. Depending on the context, however, it is possible and probable that some of the problems they will be faced with will call for settlement by authorities at a higher level. This applies, in particular, when it is a matter of co-ordinating sectoral plans for the various community facilities - which rarely coincide in space and time.

170. The concertation that is always necessary in co-ordination has to be organised at various levels: those responsible in the various services or agencies involved, representatives of local and regional authorities, specialists, experts and technicians, the staff of the various co-ordinated facilities and lastly users. None of these levels should be disregarded and concertation at the last of these levels, however difficult it may be to organise, deserves special attention. The participation of future potential or real users in decisions on the design of co-ordinated facilities contributes to the efficient use of the facilities by establishing real continuity between design and operation. The same applies to the bodies mobilising the existing structures as opposed to the ad hoc bodies which are dissolved once projects begin to operate.

171. Concertation is not confined to planning, briefing and design of co-ordinated facilities but should extend to the study of operation models and the institution of policy, administration and management arrangements designed to promote the joint or shared use of the facilities. Although these arrangements do not directly affect problems of facilities provision they are one of the pre-requisites for co-ordination of facilities. One

of the problems that they should solve relates to the role to be performed by the school institution in co-ordination projects. In particular it is important to resolve the question of whether the leadership it enjoys in most cases belongs to it by right or is merely assumed.

From Idea to Realisation

172. There is no one, single, solution - and no generalisable solutions - to the problem of how co-ordination may be put into practice. Although certain combinations are more frequent than others the range of co-ordinated facilities must always be defined in the light of individual situations, the needs voiced in them, the objectives adopted and the resources available in each situation. Similarly, the architectural solutions that are chosen vary with situation and have changed over time (from juxtaposition to concentration and from concentration to dispersed network). The choices made at this level must always be related to the characteristics of the situation and to the responsibilities that may be assumed in the operation of projects. Instead of looking for generally applicable solutions it would seem more profitable and advisable to organise exchanges of experience via a research and development policy, implying a critical evaluation of the projects already carried out.

173. Many projects suffer from a variance as between the way facilities have been designed and the way in which they are used. It would seem therefore that the results of co-ordination remain problematical as long as a clear relationship has not been established between the design of the facilities and the forecast use of them. But it is just as important to recognise that not everything can be forecast and that design should allow for some indetermination and hence accept a freedom of development in use, the effects of which cannot be perceived in advance. From this viewpoint most of the conclusions of the report "Providing for Future Change. Adaptability and Flexibility in School Building", recently published by the OECD Programme on Educational Building could well be applied to co-ordinated facilities.

174. Co-ordinated facilities raise the question of the extent to which the various users and uses of one and the same type of facility can be multiplied. There are many ways of making facilities multi-purpose but multi-purpose use does not pay if it means accepting accommodation of a poor quality and ill-suited to most of the activities that have to be accommodated. Similarly, full utilisation of facilities and their use by different publics are acceptable criteria only to the extent that they do not result in a neutrality making it impossible to give the different

areas some degree of personality that is necessary if they are really to be used.

175. From this viewpoint special attention should be paid to ways of making school and non-school use of the same facilities compatible. School children's requirements, and the need to reserve certain areas for them or to isolate certain of their activities, vary considerably with their age and also with prevailing ideas on education and the educational methods in use. More generally, the function of communication between different social groups and publics assigned to co-ordinated facilities should not result in too many undifferentiated areas. The various groups also have to be given the means of finding their own identity and asserting their own individuality.

176. At the design stage, co-ordination between the various facilities should not obscure the need for co-ordination with the surrounding environment. This underlines the importance of the location of co-ordinated facilities, their links with residential areas, transport and other features of the urban fabric, ease of access and reception arrangements. But it also underlines the need to take due account, at the design stage, of similar facilities that may already exist in the neighbourhood outside the co-ordinated project.

177. One question that is too often disregarded is that of details such as changing rooms, storage facilities, locking-up arrangements, sub-divided heating and lighting controls, etc., on which the co-ordinated use of facilities sometimes comes to grief.

Use and evaluation

178. It is the use of co-ordinated facilities that should be taken as the criterion in evaluating their design. Even so, if this criterion is to be properly used, allowance has to be made for the fact that use depends only partly on the nature of the facilities. In particular, it depends on the way in which co-ordination of services and activities is planned and on the type of organisation instituted for this purpose, both of which depend in their turn on the social relations characteristic of the environment in which they develop. The use of facilities, therefore, merely helps to gauge to what extent and in what conditions co-ordinated facilities may be suitable instruments for co-ordinating services and activities.

179. Those responsible for educational building and anxious to obtain maximum benefit from co-ordinated facilities should therefore pay particular attention to arrangements likely to create satisfactory conditions for the use of the facilities they will be providing. Where the responsibility

for such arrangements is out of their hands they should ensure that they are made or can be made in good time. Such arrangements relate, inter alia, to the organisation of political and management power as regards the activities involved (these two functions should, as far as possible, be separate responsibilities), the recruitment and advance appointment (of some at least) of the various staff members, the legal status of the facilities and the forecasting of operating and maintenance costs. No general solutions can be recommended in relation to any of the above because they depend too greatly on factors that are specific to each individual context. It would seem that the important thing is for them to be as consistent as possible with the objectives of co-ordination projects and policies. Achieving this consistency is not merely a matter of administrative techniques, policy decisions are also necessary.

180. The use of the facilities, and in particular participation by the non-school public in the activities that they accommodate, also depends on the role of the school institution in the co-ordinated project, on its social image and its symbolic position in the nature of the facilities, and on the way in which school activities are reconciled with those arising out of other requirements, needs and rythms. The full use of facilities cannot be an acceptable objective if it contradicts the need to respect the variety of rythms and practices characterising the various types of public served.

181. Methods for evaluating projects of co-ordinated facilities in terms of their use need to be refined and developed to a far greater extent than they have up to now. In particular a thorough criticism ought to be made of comparisons between the costs of co-ordinated facilities and those of separate facilities, the results of which are often meaningless. Evaluation should consist primarily of analyses enabling investment and operating costs to be related to the services that are in fact provided. The development of the necessary methods and the implementation of such studies will no doubt call for the appropriate skills and resources. These resources should be made available if there is a serious wish that co-ordination of facilities should advance beyond its present exploratory, only partly matured stage and, with the help of research and development, produce significant results.

TASKS AND MECHANISMS

REPORT ON THE SKOKLOSTER SYMPOSIUM SWEDEN

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INTRODUCTION

Purpose of Symposium

1. The "Synthesis" on co-ordination of school and community facilities, the four country studies (France, United States, England/Australia, Sweden) on which it extensively relies, and the paper entitled "Inter-sectoral Issues" represent together what can be described as an "outside view" of the general topic of facilities co-ordination. Although all contributors have made an intensive study of the issues and problems involved, and although most have had direct experience of co-ordinating facilities in their own particular countries, each contribution is an account of other people's experience, written from the stand-point of an observer. Where the relative emphasis and importance lies among the rich and wide-ranging complex of issues revealed by these studies, only individual readers can decide; and what they decide will depend on their particular interests. But is seemed useful that the "outside view" should be complemented by the "inside view" of people who carry responsibility in their own countries for advising on or carrying out policies relevant to the co-ordination of facilities, people with responsibilities in the fields of education - in particular school building - community life and urban planning. This, then, was the purpose of the OECD Symposium held at Skokloster (a conference centre some 65 kms north-west of Stockholm) from 26th September to 1st October 1976 - to enable an international cross-section of such people to discuss, with each other and with those holding an "outside view", the means by which needs for educational, cultural and social facilities can be met jointly by a co-ordinated approach.

The Participants

2. Fifteen countries out of the nineteen participating in OECD's Programme on Educational Building sent participants to the Symposium, two to four from each country and including educationists, administrators, architects and urban planners. To the "inside view" thus represented an "outside" counterpart was provided by the participation of contributors to

the preceding studies, and of observers from the OECD Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI), from UNESCO and from the United States which, while not participating in the Programme, is the source of much interesting experience.

3. Besides being international and interdisciplinary, the make-up of participants reflected wide variations in national administrative structure (ranging from highly-centralised to non-centralised), in the level of administration at which each of them operate, and in the distance particular countries had travelled along the road to co-ordination (ranging from those like the United States, where not one but several roads have been followed, to some which had not yet set out and were not yet decided on whether to do so). Thus while some participants had much to contribute to discussions on the management of co-ordinated facilities, or on the planning processes from which they result, others were well placed to raise the issues likely to affect even earlier stages of policy decision.

The Range of Discussion

4. The time available for the Symposium was too short to allow discussion to range over the whole multiplicity of issues brought to light by all the studies of co-ordination previously undertaken in the Programme on Educational Building. For this reason the programme for the Symposium suggested that discussions should centre around four inter-related themes which the studies - and especially those mentioned in paragraph 1 - had indicated as important for the development of strategies and which thus provided a frame of reference to which the pre-occupations of participants could conveniently be related. These four themes were:

i) Needs. The identification of the nature and diversity of needs to which traditional facilities provide either separate answers or no answer at all, but which can be better served by the co-ordination of school facilities with those of other sectors.

ii) Search for Solutions. The problems faced by the partners involved in facilities co-ordination, especially with respect to the planning, briefing and design of co-ordinated facilities in relation to changing social needs or to the development of towns, suburbs or rural areas.

iii) Conducting Co-ordination. Measures which can be taken at various levels of decision-making to create conditions of optimal use and obtain value for money; and the implications of problems of use for the design of facilities.

iv) Evaluation. The scope, purpose and feasibility of evaluation in co-ordinating facilities, and the contribution research and development can be expected to make in formulating and carrying out strategies for co-ordination.

It was not proposed that discussion should be limited to these topics if others equally important were to emerge, nor that these or any other topics could be seen as anything but closely inter-related. On the other hand, the Symposium was not intended as an occasion for examining the detail - especially the architectural detail - of any specific case. This did not imply that technical detail was unimportant but that it should only be discussed when relevant to illuminating strategic or policy alternatives.

Basis of Present Report

5. Apart from the invaluable personal exchanges for which the Symposium provided opportunity, virtually all discussion took place in small working groups. Participants were divided among six of these, each of which contained a mix of disciplines - educationists, architects and administrators, with an OECD expert as "animateur" and, insofar as the informality of discussion made desirable, as chairman. Groups 1 and 2 spoke French, the other four English. The author of the Synthesis (Jean Ader of the OECD Secretariat) and the Rapporteur General liaised as far as possible betweeen groups, while the animateurs kept full note of the discussions and compared notes with each other and with the Rapporteur General at the end of each session.

6. All six groups ranged over the four topics outlined above, but the emphasis placed on each aspect, as well as the inter-relationship perceived between one aspect and another, tended to differ among groups. By the middle of the last day all groups had reached a point where they had drawn together the threads of their preceding discussions. Briefed by their respective groups, the animateurs then reported together to the Rapporteur General on the major issues and conclusions to which the exchange of experience and views had led. Groups proved to have differed in the points they chose to underline, but none of their conclusions were mutually incompatible. From the evidence thus available to him, the Rapporteur General prepared a summary of what appeared to him as the main themes to have emerged and presented it orally to the final plenary session.

7. Although this oral summary was accepted by participants as fairly representing the results of the Symposium as a whole, it was necessarily selective. The present report, which aims to be as comprehensive as

circumstances allow, has not been presented to participants for confirmation. It has, however, been compiled on the basis of notes taken at the time, both by the author and by the animateurs, and has been revised in the light of corrective comments made by the latter. Despite this, in the interpretation placed on views expressed at the Symposium, on the emphasis given to them, and in relating them to the wider interests of the Programme on Educational Building as a whole, a degree of subjectivity on the part of the author is inescapable, and individual participants at the Symposium must thereby be absolved from any automatic association with the content of this report.

Special Viewpoint of the Symposium

8. As remarked at the outset, the Synthesis and the case studies which it draws together, consider the issues of co-ordination from the viewpoint of outside observers. The Symposium(1), representing as it did, a rich diversity of experience, nationality and basis of interest on the part of people with direct responsibility for such issues in their own countries, saw them, so to speak, from inside. It therefore tended to place the accent less on the generalisations which are internationally appliable, and more on practical issues relevant to those who have to make co-ordination work and come alive. These differences of accent and viewpoint brought out two distinctions which tend to be under-emphasised in the earlier studies.

9. The first distinction is that between two differing approaches to the practical problems of co-ordination. One is the approach made by officialdom, that is to say by the official agencies which attempt to co-ordinate their efforts and activities in the public interest. The other is the approach made by individuals or, more particularly, by pressure groups, within a given community, in an attempt to right what they perceive as wrongs or to meet needs which officialdom appears to neglect or ignore. Depending on which approach is taken, so the problems of co-ordination and their solution appear differently. The one may be seen as paternalistic and the other as militancy opposed to bureaucracy. The Symposium, while recognising the distinction, recognised also the need to reconcile if possible the two approaches.

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1) The participants who met at Skokloster displayed a widely observed phenomenon of group behaviour. After they had been only a short time together their individual perceptions and assumptions came to co-exist with and tended to be dominated by those of the group as a whole. It therefore seems justifiable to speak of the Symposium, not only as an event, but also as a kind of collective mind and voice. We shall henceforth speak of it in either sense.

10. The other distinction is that which the Symposium considered necessary between the co-ordination of physical accommodation on the one hand, and of services (or the agencies providing them) on the other. The title of the Symposium itself referred to the co-ordination of school and community building. But, in fact, participants found themselves talking about "facilities" and about "co-ordinated facilities projects". This was for two inter-connected reasons. First they saw the various items of physical accommodation which buildings contain as included among the facilities which both school and community require. But they saw too, that the term "facilities" also embraces the various services to which the community (which itself embraces children of school age) looks for the satisfaction of social needs - educational services, library services, medical services, services in support of leisure, social welfare and so on, including the very important service of housing. Thus in speaking of "co-ordination" they found themselves referring, either to the co-ordination of physical accommodation, or to the co-ordination of services; and all the discussion pointed to the necessity of making this distinction clear.

11. In a given locality, each separate service conventionally has its own separate building (if it has one at all) containing a "set" of different items of accommodation, each suiting a particular activity. Economic or other constraints, however, often mean that some desirable items are under-provided or even excluded, thus reducing the effectiveness with which the particular purpose can be served. Constraints can also be so severe that some purposes can not be served at all, for want of the necessary accommodation - especially in the case of emerging purposes which are served by voluntary effort rather than by an officially financed service. In the view of the Symposium, the co-ordination of the otherwise separate physical accommodation could lead to the provision of buildings in such a form and in such an inter-relationship with each other, that not only would these difficulties be reduced (if not entirely overcome) but that more positive advantages would also ensue: new opportunities would be opened up which separate provision could not possibly provide. But both the reduction of difficulties and the creation of new and wider opportunities depended even more on the effective co-ordination of services.

12. Admittedly, co-ordination has sometimes produced no more than disappointing results; but the failures do not necessarily point to weaknesses in co-ordination as a principle. They indicate, rather, weaknesses in the way that co-ordination has been conducted, either in the management or in the planning of facilities, and these weaknesses derive in turn from shortcomings in external financial or institutional conditions which have imposed external constraints on co-ordination as a process. Where, on the

other hand, the nature of the benefits has been well understood, and where external conditions have favoured the planning and management of facilities, then important benefits have been obtained. Furthermore, the studies have indicated steps which might be taken to improve management and planning and to make external conditions even more favourable, so as to increase the prospect of benefit in the future.

13. From this brief summary of findings can be discerned the logic of the sequence in which the subject matter of this report is ordered. First we shall look at the potential benefits on which the Symposium placed most emphasis. Then, turning to experience derived from experience in the management of co-ordinated facilities we shall attempt to highlight some of the key features which distinguish any set of co-ordinated facilities likely to realise the potential benefits, features which have implications for the design of co-ordinated projects and for their location and inter-relationships. In considering each of these topics the effect of external conditions will emerge, many of which relate to matters demanding some degree of government intervention. These are dealt with under the heading of major strategies. A final part looks briefly at the significance of the Symposium for other activities in the OECD Programme on Educational Building.

Part One

POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF CO-ORDINATION

14. The Symposium was most emphatic that the co-ordination of facilities should not be seen as an end in itself, to be pursued at all costs as an article of faith. It is a means to an end; and the real end to be pursued is to widen the opportunities for individuals, for families and for other groups in the community to enjoy a richer and more rewarding experience of life. All the potential benefits of co-ordination are to be seen as aspects of this overriding objective. They may, however, be grouped under four heads.

Economic Benefits

15. The prospect of making better use of resources has often been a powerful motive behind attempts at co-ordination, and the Synthesis has drawn attention (paragraphs 30 et seq.) to three ways in which co-ordination can contribute benefits in this respect - by reducing unnecessary under-utilisation of accommodation, whether used for school or other purposes, by avoiding unnecessary duplication of accommodation and, in some cases, by economising, in building costs or in the use of land. But the Symposium laid a somewhat different emphasis on these considerations and added to them a further dimension. It emphasised, first, that the economic benefit of co-ordination was to be seen, not in terms of co-ordination providing the same things for less money, but in terms of providing more things for the same money. In other words, if educational and other agencies or services can co-ordinate their accommodation, each can expect to have more extensive and diversified facilities at its disposal than if it went its own way independently. Indeed, this synergetic effect of co-ordination, whereby the result of combined energies is greater than the sum of the individual energies contributed to the combination, the Symposium saw as underlying all the benefits, economic and otherwise, which co-ordination had to offer.

16. A second economic benefit emphasised at the Symposium is the "enabling effect" of co-ordination. For example, in areas where the school-age population has declined, economic pressure tends to force schools to close down; but the co-ordination of educational activities with others in the same school building may relieve the economic pressure and enable the community to retain its school and avoid the disadvantages attendant on sending pupils elsewhere.

17. Similarly, co-ordinated facilities can be the means of releasing the full potential of voluntary agencies within a community. Such an agency may have only modest finance at its disposal, but by contributing its mite to a synergetic combination is enabled to obtain or gain access to facilities which otherwise it could not afford, but which give fuller rein to its activities. Because such activities often take the form of what, in effect, are free services, a further economic benefit results.

18. Among the costs associated with building are those incurred on the physical adaptation necessitated by changes of use or changes in the pattern of activities for which the building must provide. Another study made in the Programme on Educational Building has suggested that the need for physical adaptation is likely to be lessened if the building already contains a range of differentiated environments - the wider the range the less likely the need for costly adaptation.(1) The co-ordination of facilities, by definition, widens the range of differentiated environments included in the resulting building complex - no matter whether the elements of that complex are all under one roof or separate and dispersed. Thus a further economic benefit of co-ordination lies in its potential for reducing the costs of future change. Nevertheless, as will be seen later, this advantage is to some extent offset by the fact that uses and patterns of activity in co-ordinated complexes are subject to more frequent change than is characteristic of separated provision.

Benefits Related to Welfare Services

19. In all OECD countries - as in others besides - the state has come to accept a responsibility (to an extent which varies according to the country) for promoting public welfare and solving social problems. This responsibility the state discharges through official services or agencies each of which, for historical reasons, has come to be concerned with a separate sector, such as education, health, housing, transport, care for the handicapped or under-privileged and so on. A growing consensus of opinion now recognises, however, that social needs and problems can not be sectorised in such administratively neat compartments. The difficulties of a child at school are inseparable from those he faces in a deprived or divided home. Juvenile delinquency, insofar as it is understood, is clearly not the result of defective education alone, nor solely the result of inadequate parental influence or an under-manned police

1) Providing for Future Change - Adaptability and Flexibility in School Building, OECD, Paris, 1976.

force or over-exposure to televised violence. Thus the consensus maintains the need for concerted or integrated action by all sectors co-operating with each other. Among the benefits discerned by the Symposium in the co-ordination of school and community facilities are those which encourage and support inter-agency co-operation.

20. Clearly some degree of inter-agency co-operation is a pre-condition for the co-ordination of built facilities which each agency would otherwise provide separately or not at all. That a number of agencies then work in close proximity in the co-ordinated facilities at least reminds them of each other's existence. But for the co-ordination of facilities to be effective in reducing unnecessary duplication or under-use, each agency must make at least some of "its own" accommodation available to others, and be prepared to go outside its own accommodation for some of its activites - so that in this way co-operation remains essential. To the extent that the habit of co-operation grows as new needs for co-operation are discovered, the co-ordination of facilities can thus be seen to have a catalytic benefit.

21. More important than the catalytic effect, however, is what the Symposium perceived to be the opportunities which co-ordinated facilities can provide for inter-sectoral co-operation to develop its fullest synergetic potential. These opportunities are created not merely because the agencies themselves are brought together, but because co-ordinated facilities also bring together a wide cross-section of the community which constitutes as it were, the clientele to whose service the efforts of the agencies are directed. By this means it is easier for the agencies to see and understand the interactions between, for example, different age groups or between the problems of the mother who is to enter hospital and the problems of her family left at home. Furthermore, for any particular individual or group of people, more can be observed of the network through which problems of housing, health, work, leisure, family life and social relationships influence each other.

22. By sharpening the perceptions of co-operating agencies, co-ordinated facilities confer another important benefit in revealing both problems and possible solutions to them which might otherwise have gone unnoticed until they had mounted to a crisis level or even passed beyond the stage of remedy. Some of these problems may be such that no single agency would see them as its responsibility whereas the agencies working together have a better chance and a more powerful incentive to see that between them the responsibility is properly discharged.

Benefits and the Dynamics of Change

23. The expression "dynamics of change" is derived from the fact that change in the social and physical character of human settlements is governed by forces which continually fluctuate and interact. These are the forces - economic, technological, demographic, cultural and so on - which "planning" attempts to influence in pursuit of politically identified objectives. And the objectives themselves are continually modified, not only by political decision, but as their feasibility is tested by events and as the forces react in their turn to such restraints as planning succeeds in exerting on them.

24. Like responsibility for public welfare, responsibility for planning is also sectoralised, and indeed the welfare agencies themselves are among those which discharge a planning function. Recognition of the dynamics of change is accompanied by growing aknowledgement of the need for intersectoral co-operation if planning is to be effective. But even intersectoral planning tends to operate at the scale of regions or large agglomerations, whereas its impact on individuals and groups is felt at a local level. At this level detailed differences between localities are too fine for planning to take into account but nevertheless have important consequences for the communities concerned. Planning decisions, necessarily related to long-term objectives, also take a long time to put into effect, so that change that has occurred in the meantime leads inevitably to a further disparity between intention and result. Since communities can not escape the consequences of long-term planning decisions such disparities are the source of the conflict which so often puts planners and public in opposition to each other.

25. This line of argument may seem at first sight, to be a plea for better communications between government and the governed. This is not so. The real point is that macro-level decisions may well be sound and deserve agreement, but that not even the most democratically sensitive decision-maker can foresee all their ultimate micro-effects. The argument therefore points, not to a criticism of macro-level planning, but rather to the need for a further complementary function - a "fine-tuning" function discharged at local level, of adjusting "macro-decisions" to detailed needs so as to remove or reduce the disparities which come to light. The Symposium suggested that in co-ordinated facilities lay the means of discharging this "fine-tuning" function.

26. In any case, it is commonly found that, as one activity in a community declines, another begins to increase. Some experience suggests that

the transition between the one activity and the other is more smoothly made if both activities are accommodated in the same building or group of buildings.

Benefits for Self-Help

27. Co-ordinated facilities may be seen as a means for carrying intersectoral co-operation forward from, so to speak, general headquarters to the front-line, where tactics can be adjusted to the evolving situation. No less importantly, as an energising focus for community affairs, they stimulate the community to clarify for itself the kind of adjustments needed and to take initiatives of its own in making them. As a corollary to this, the Symposium emphasised the capacity of co-ordinated facilities for releasing a community's own potential. By providing an "energising focus" where different individuals and groups can meet and get to understand how and in what ways they can help each other, co-ordinated facilities promote a sense of community - or in other words the realisation that by synergetic combination more can be achieved. As a consequence, a kind of multiplying effect occurs by revealing hitherto unsuspected opportunities for self-help and self-fulfilment. And as these opportunities are seized the community becomes more an equal partner with official agencies and less dependent on them.

28. In mentioning this last kind of benefit, attention must be drawn to the danger of misusing co-ordinated facilities as a kind of sedative for social conflict, misusing them, to quote the CERI report School and Community: "to buy local energy and initiative to make marginal impact ... whilst significant issues of unemployment, poor housing ... etc., are ignored".(1) Nevertheless, well-operated co-ordinated facilities can provide the milieu in which the community itself can decide for itself just what is "significant", rather than leaving the judgement to be made solely by authority.

A Note of Reservation

29. By drawing attention to the potential benefits which the co-ordination of facilities may be seen to offer, the foregoing paragraphs might seem to suggest that the benefits which are most wanted should be identified before a project is undertaken and thus become the pre-determined objectives of the project. But in fact it is preferable that such projects,

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1) School and Community, CERI, OECD, Paris, 1975, page 27.

like the examples studied, should be no more than the natural and logical alternative to conventional sectorised approaches which, for one reason or another, prove ineffective or even unworkable. It is increasingly recognised that no sector can nowadays expect to meet its objectives by developing its own policies in isolation. Other alternatives than the co-ordination of facilities may hold out better prospects for solving the consequent problems or for meeting the objectives of the sectors involved in a particular situation. But the co-ordination of facilities is nevertheless one alternative which can not be left out of consideration. Thus the benefits indicated here can be interpreted as including objectives which sectorised strategies seem incapable of attaining.

30. This section is entitled Potential Benefits, with the implication that none of the benefits can be obtained (nor the objectives realised) by virtue of a simple decision to co-ordinate facilities and services. All remain latent until the potential is released. Whether this happens or not depends partly on how the particular undertaking is operated or managed, partly on how the physical accommodation is designed and, when several sets of facilities are operated within a region or large agglomeration, on how inter-relationships and interactions between them are controlled. Releasing the potential depends, furthermore, on factors which lie beyond co-ordination as such but which, if not modified, will prevent the benefits from being obtained. Each of these conditioning factors is dealt with in turn in the parts which now follow.

Part Two

MANAGEMENT OF CO-ORDINATED FACILITIES

Essential Features of Co-ordination

31. Many of the Symposium participants had direct experience of problems arising in the day-to-day management of co-ordinated facilities and such experience forms a convenient starting point from which to explore the conditions to be satisfied if the potential benefits available in any particular case are to be maximised. By starting from this point, not only can the essential features of co-ordination be most easily discerned, but so can the distinction between conditions which lie under the control of those with immediate responsibility for it, and conditions which, on the other hand, can only be created as the result of strategic rather than operational decisions.

32. Three essential features characterise any co-ordinated facilities undertaking. First the undertaking rests on cultivating and maintaining a harmonious partnership. Secondly, the course it follows is open-ended or indeterminate - once embarked on there is no certainty where the course will lead. And thirdly, as a consequence of this uncertainty, the undertaking incurs risks of discord which tend to make the partnership vulnerable.

a) Nature of the Partnership

33. The nature of the partnership is complex and can be seen, therefore in a number of different ways. It can be seen most simply, and from the viewpoint of officialdom most readily, as a partnership between official welfare agencies each seeking to enhance its own effectiveness. Where such agencies are responsive to the needs imposed by social change and seek consciously and conscientiously to co-operate to meet them, the partnership has, indeed, resulted from official initiatives. But in other cases, bureaucratic inertia has been too strong for this to happen. Private citizens forming pressure groups within the community have been the first to see the needs as pressing, and have stirred official agencies into working with them and with each other to take the necessary action. No matter where the initiative has come from, however, the partnership can also be seen as one between the official agencies and the community itself.

34. Nevertheless, "the community itself" is hardly even an easily definable entity capable of speaking with a single voice. Its existence can only be recognised from the many voices and pressures which emanate from it and which find expression through identifiable interest groups. Some such groups may have a political purpose, but many will be entirely non-political

dedicated to sport or other leisure activity, or to some kind of scientific, literary or artistic pursuit; and at the same time, some will be temporary in nature, disbanding once their objective is achieved, others will have bursts of seasonal or irregular activity, while some will be relatively permanent and constantly active. The partnership between official agencies and "the community" can only occur through the medium of such groups however much it is directed towards what is conceived as the interest of the community as a much vaguer whole. This being so, the partnership can be seen to consist of, on the one hand, a stable element - represented by the official agencies - and on the other, a fluctuating element depending on the permanence or regularity of the community groups.

35. Private community associations which participate in a partnership for co-ordination do so, of course, on an entirely voluntary basis and can withdraw at any time they wish. At the point of first entering into partnership, the decision is no less voluntary on the part of official agencies also. Thereafter, however, two possibilities are open with respect to the official sector. One is that participation by an official agency continues to remain entirely voluntary and that withdrawal is no more difficult than for an unofficial partner. Clearly, any such withdrawal can have very serious repercussions for the remaining partners and, especially if the withdrawing partner is large by comparison with them, may jeopardise the success of the whole enterprise and render nugatory the investment others have put into it. For this reason, the other possibility seems to be preferred, namely, that the partnership agreement, once made, is regarded as binding and irrevocable, at least for a period long enough to allow initial difficulties to be overcome and for the enterprise of co-ordination to be consolidated. Where this is so, the early years of co-ordinated facilities may be marked by adjustments which prove irksome, as each partner learns to give as well as take. Thus, even though the partnership is binding rather than voluntary, its success depends on the willingness of all partners to make concessions, and it is important that such willingness should not be restrained or inhibited by any sectoral authority to which a particular partner may still be subject.

b) Elements of Uncertainty

36. The freedom of association enjoyed by the community partners means that any partnership which includes them may, and probably will, fluctuate over time to an extent that is unpredictable. But even more than the partnership itself, the clientele is also voluntary and liable to fluctuate unpredictably. It embraces a far wider cross-section of the community than those who have to go to school because the law compels them

to; so that unless the facilities continue to cater for the interests and activities it wishes to pursue the undertaking will collapse. How these interests will develop, how far some will fall away and be replaced by others and what changes of activity will be the consequence, contribute further uncertainty. Then again, each partner charged with a specific function (itself involving sub-functions) pursues that function by pursuing a range of activities, each requiring a corresponding item of physical accommodation. When co-ordination has become fully effective, partners tend to find that some sub-functions are better transferred from one partner to another. The activities associated with that sub-function are naturally then transferred as well. The effect of this transfer on the physical accommodation, or conversely, the extent to which the constraints of physical accommodation affect the feasibility of transfer, may well have repercussions throughout the complex as a whole. Thus mismatches between the activities and the physical accommodation provided tend to increase as the undertaking develops, unless periodic alterations are made to minimise or eradicate them. What alterations are likely to be needed and what form they should take add to the picture of uncertainty.

c) Sources of Discord

37. Uncertainties are not in themselves to be deplored. They are an inevitable reflection of the dynamics of change whose challenge co-ordinated facilities set out to meet; but they tend to be a source of discord which threatens harmony in the partnership and adds to its vulnerability. Further discord is latent from the moment that formerly separate partners come together to cohabit, so to speak, under the same roof or within an integrated organisation and face the need for give-and-take which has been mentioned. Discord may arise also from simple issues of domestic management, such as responsibility for cleaning and maintenance, or by arguments over the share of house-keeping costs to be borne by each partner. However much accommodation may be shared, or however generous partners may be in allowing access to their "own" accommodation by others, discord can easily arise when the need appears to limit access in order to provide security against theft, or to avoid heating or lighting sections of the building when they are not in use. It may arise, too, from the need to reserve certain items of accommodation for certain purposes at times which suit one partner but not others, or from clashes which occur when incompatible activities coincide in time and place.

38. For many of the personnel concerned - teachers mainly, but others also - co-ordinated facilities constitute a working milieu which is entirely novel and unfamiliar. Some, indeed, may see co-ordination more

as an imposition laid on them by theorists rather than as a response to the conviction of practitioners. But however convinced they may be of the principle they are likely to find reality at variance with their expectations. This in itself induces stress which, experience shows, is often increased by the discovery that traditional roles are modified or that more work has to be done without compensation or without sharing it among a correspondingly larger number of staff.

39. The last source of discord that we may note is the frustration that can be caused by legal or regulatory constraints which prevent agencies or their personnel from providing services which they see as necessary to meet what the undertaking, as it develops, reveals as hitherto unnoticed but compelling needs.

Reducing Vulnerability

40. Repeated references have been made in the foregoing paragraphs to the "development" of undertakings to co-ordinate facilities. These reflect the Symposium view that co-ordinated facilities should be seen, both institutionally and in building terms, as essentially organic, requiring time and a favourable environment to realise the potential benefits, their vitality dependent on continual renewal and adaptation. Unless such undertakings succeed in producing benefits, their continuance is, of course, unjustifiable. But while recognising that co-ordination should not be protected against the consequences of its own failures, the Symposium believed that, for the fullest benefits to be realised, co-ordination needs to be protected against the full impact of the voluntary aspects of its character and against the risks to which uncertainty and latent discords may expose it. Positive measures were seen as necessary to provide a greater assurance of continuity, to reduce the threat that agencies in the partnership might justifiably withdraw, to guard against what some of the discussions termed "re-balkanisation". Some of these measures were, so to speak, "internal" to any particular undertaking and could be taken by the people who were directly responsible on the spot; others depended on creating the right kind of management structure, with adequate powers; and others depended on improving contextual conditions which the managers or the personnel under their direction had no ability to influence.

Internal Measures

41. The first internal measure that can be taken is of a moral nature. It is to adopt an attitude of mind which recognises that while stresses and conflicts can and must be alleviated, they remain inevitably latent in the

challenge of responding to continually changing community needs. In practice this means recognising that the operation of co-ordinated facilities is, in effect, a learning process. The means of assuring continuity which is most readily open to internal action lies in continuing research into community needs and continuous development of solutions for meeting them: in short by making continuous evaluation the basis of management policy.

42. Throughout its discussions the Symposium laid great emphasis on the importance of community participation in identifying needs and finding solutions. To fall back on fashionable metaphor, it stressed the need for official agencies to cultivate the grass-roots and lend a sympathetic ear to their murmurings, to encourage rather than merely placate demands from the community itself. At the same time, it underlined two corollaries. First by participating in the learning process, the community as well as officialdom can more easily see the difference between articulated demand and the underlying needs which may be concealed by the terms in which the demand is formulated or which penetrating analysis shows that the demand implies. Secondly, while official partners must eagerly encourage community initiatives, they must avoid the temptation to be paternalistic and over-protective towards them. The often unobstrusive but immensely valuable work of small and poorly-resourced voluntary groups can easily wither away when some large organisation appears to move in or take over. The partnership must be sensitively managed so that their participation does not mean loss of identity. This again demands on the part of those concerned a particular attitude of mind.

43. However, neither continuous research and development, nor community participation nor sensitive management will bear fruit, unless the powers and structure of management are such as will also combat vulnerability.

Management Tasks

44. Co-ordinated facilities impose managerial tasks at both tactical and strategic levels. Tactical decisions concern the day-to-day operation of the facilities and their related services. They may relate to the reservation for certain purposes of certain items of accommodation at a given time, to the minor re-arrangement of generalised spaces, to the resolution of un-expected clashes such as those already mentioned, when incompatible activities coincide in time and place. Here a delicate balance has to be struck between, on the one hand, avoiding destructive attitudes of "ownership" in which different partners seek to exclude others from parts of the building which each sees as its own special province, and on the

other, retaining the beneficial attitudes to ownership which evidence themselves in care for the premises and in a sense of responsibility and pride.

45. In one way, however, tactical tasks go beyond matters of day-to-day decision. The very problems which day-to-day decisions deal with themselves raise issues for the continuous evaluation of needs and how to meet them, and thus constitute a link between the tactical and strategic levels.

46. The overriding task to be performed at the strategic level may be described as "the management of uncertainty". The attempt made by co-ordination to achieve social purposes may well lead to outcomes which are unexpected, and to some that are not only unexpected but unwelcome also. Decisions at the strategic level need to dispose of such outcomes and take account of the newly emerging needs to which they point, as part of the process of research and development that constitutes continuing evaluation. Whatever mechanism is charged with such decisions must also establish priorities, and in order to do so must be able to negotiate for resources and allocate such resources as are obtained to the various purposes which need to be served within the facilities.

Management Structure

47. From this brief review of tasks can be discerned at least an outline of the kind of management structure that seems desirable. Such a structure needs to have three main components. The first may be called a tactical management group, with its membership inevitably drawn mainly from the senior staff of the facilities in question, but including perhaps some members recruited from the "clientele" who can speak with knowledge of the situation as seen by users.

48. The second component would be analogous to a Steering Committee or Board of Directors concerned with overall strategy or policy. Its essential membership would comprise representatives of each official agency in the partnership and of each of the major community partners. It might also usefully include some members qualified to speak for the community at large.

49. The third, but not least important, component would be an individual co-ordinator acting, as it were, in the capacity of managing director of the undertaking. He (or, of course, she) would preside over the tactical group but also have a seat on the policy board, so as to form a link between the two. The Symposium stressed the need for effectively articulating community voices and for transmitting signals back and forth between the community and the official services concerned with the facilities.

Both tactical group and policy board provide equally important antennae for sensing these signals, so the link between them is essential for this reason alone. But besides his linking function, the co-ordinator is important as the only voice on the policy board who can relate policy objectives to the feasibility of meeting them in practice. As president of the tactical group he will meet the need to have a final arbiter in settling conflicts between partners. But he has perhaps an even more important role in ensuring that no community interest is neglected simply because no agency can readily be identified as appropriate for dealing with it.

50. The Symposium believed strongly that as many as possible of the facilities staff should live in the locality and so be themselves inside the community they serve, and this applies with even greater force to the co-ordinator. This apart, whether he should be an elected representative, a public official or have some special skill, seemed less important to the Symposium than his personal qualities. These should include:

- a commitment to the objectives which co-ordination is intended to further in the project concerned;
- ability to take an overview with no strong bias to any particular service or provision; (and the fact that he should also be seen to have no such bias suggests that preferably he should not be in any way identifiable with the interest of any dominant partner);
- a sensitivity to the needs and apprehensions of groups or individual affected by co-ordination;
- a willingness to be seen and to act as the servant of the policy committee;
- skill in communication and in personal relationships.

Strategic Measures to Promote Stability

51. The detail of managerial arrangements which remains to be filled in between the outlines suggested above will depend on the institutional characteristics of the country concerned. But whatever the detail may be, the Symposium underlined the dangers of leaving it unclear. One working group, for instance, suggested that "one cause of the present impasse in launching new co-ordinated facilities projects in France lies in the absence of any clearly defined structure for managing them, the accommodation having been turned over to users without, so to speak, any real 'instructions for use'". In view of this "it is important to define from the outset, i.e. as soon as a decision has been taken to build the facilities, what form the management structure is to take". Equally

important is to settle in advance a form of partnership agreement which would be binding on the services or other financing partners for a period of time long enough to ensure that the constitution of the partnership was not constantly open to question.

52. A major consideration for such an agreement is how recurrent costs shall be shared - costs incurred in maintenance, supplies of working materials, heating, lighting, cleaning services, and in providing for minor physical re-arrangements. The assumptions on which such agreement about recurrent costs is based are critical for flexibility in response to change. One possible assumption is that the share should be based on what might be called a "fair rent principle". That is to say, the share of costs borne by a given partner would reflect the proportion of the total facilities of which he makes regular use and the time over which he makes use of them. This, indeed, seems to be the only basis for arriving at an equitable charge to what the Synthesis calls "outside users": associations or groups in the community, families holding receptions or parties, and firms or private people. (See Synthesis paragraph 132). Two objections can be made, however, against applying the fair rent principle to "inside" partners. First, the space/time usage attributable to any partner can neither be forecast nor measured in retrospect, except with respect to rigidly timetabled activities, and is even then difficult where more than one partnership uses accommodation simultaneously. As a consequence, both joint use and untimetabled activity, each equally desirable and each an objective of co-ordination, may be inhibited by the unwillingness of partners to incur charges for benefits they are uncertain of enjoying or of having enjoyed. Secondly, even over a relatively short phase of operation, the pattern of use - and therefore the space/time proportions - may change significantly, yet do so, not only without detriment to any partner, but more probably to the greater benefit of all. But the fair rent principle incurs the risk that a particular pattern of use will be rigidly maintained because individual partners are under psychological pressure to hold on to what the fair rent entitles them to.(1)

53. The Symposium offered no precise suggestion on what alternative would be preferable to the fair rent principle, recognising no doubt the unreality that might attach to a suggestion made in general terms without reference

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1) In commending the attempt made at Istres "to relate investment costs to services provided" the Synthesis (paragraph 151) may appear to be commending something approaching the fair rent principle. So it should be noted that here the Synthesis is dealing with the quite separate problem of evaluating the cost/benefit ratios of co-ordination as compared with separate provision.

to a particular institutional situation. Perhaps, however, the alternative may lie in the direction of a commitment by partners to share operational costs in proportion either to their initial capital contribution or, possibly, to the total budget available to their respective sectors.

54. Prior agreement on cost-sharing is, however, only one of the measures necessary if the management structure is to discharge its tasks effectively, especially those described in paragraph 46. In particular it needs to have an assured budget at its disposal and a significant autonomy, not only in deciding how to spend the budget, but in other aspects of decision-making also.(1) That is to say, it should enjoy powers which enable it to respond to change and uncertainty without having constantly to seek approval from higher authority in any of the "parent" sectors.

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1) One area of decision-making concerns the recruitment and promotion of staff, bearing in mind what has been said in paragraph 38.

Part Three

DESIGN OF CO-ORDINATED FACILITIES

Relationship between Operation and Design

55. The possibilities of pursuing any particular activity are clearly related to the availability of suitable accommodation. But the nature of this relationship is more complex than might be supposed. Any activity whether it is playing football or cooking for large numbers, is itself complex and contains a number of sub-activities (changing, taking a shower in the one case, food preparation, cooking, serving, washing-up, in the other). And each sub-activity has its own requirements in terms of space, heating, lighting or acoustics, services, furnishing, etc., so that the activity requires not so much an item of accommodation as a "set" of accommodation. While the set required by one activity may differ from that required by another, each set may contain some items which are identical, just as some of the sub-activities may be the same even though the activities themselves are different. Furthermore, activities can seldom, be isolated. One inter-relates with another (cooking with eating, playing the game and watching it) and this implies a parallel inter-relationship between the corresponding sets of accommodation. As activities and the numbers of people engaged in them change or fluctuate, corresponding change and adjustment are needed in the accommodation provided for them. Thus the successful operation of a co-ordinated undertaking is bound up with the capacity of the management to make the necessary adjustments (cf. paragraphs 36 and 44); but it is clearly dependent also on the design of the accommodation at their disposal.

56. Fortunately, the difficulties of both initial design and subsequent change are mitigated in two ways. First, the match between activities and accommodation is not like a point where two lines intersect: the ability of human beings to adapt to circumstances allows it to be more in the nature of a smudge. Secondly, instances are common enough which show that if a given activity comes to an end, the accommodation used for it or even specifically designed for it does not thereby become useless, but can still provide opportunities for other activities to take place.

57. As can be seen from the Case Studies, the opportunities presented by buildings which have become unused but by no means useless, especially when the opportunities combine with public regard for the buildings as such, have been an important motivation towards co-ordination and have constituted the accommodation provided for the undertaking. Where existing buildings have been taken over as an emergency measure - perhaps in

response to irresistible militancy - the design of adaptations needed to improve the activity/accommodation match has necessarily evolved with the operation of the undertaking. Such emergencies apart, the design of adaptations need be less a matter of rapid improvisation and is no different from the design process involved if the accommodation to be provided is built from scratch or is a mixture of new and existing.

58. The Synthesis has drawn attention to three main ways of dealing wi h co-ordination:

i) concentrated projects, each containing a variable number of facilities corresponding to different functions run by different services, but all under one roof or on one site or campus;
ii) network systems: made up of specialised (mono-functional) or composite (multi-functional) elements, each constituting in itself a small complex of different facilities but complementing and complemented by other elements in other localities;
iii) dispersed solutions, where a special facility is created with the express purpose of shared use between a number of different services or publics - such as a restaurant for use by neighbouring schools, a youth centre and other public services.

Symposium discussions seemed to indicate that, useful though these distinctions are for the analysis of experience, in relation to planning processes a different distinction is needed, one which takes account not only of the three main types of co-ordination but also of scale variations in the zone or zones served by each project to which a planning process relates.

59. The distinction which appeared important to Symposium participants is between planning a set of facilities and planning concerned with relationships between one set and another, or between such sets and the town or region where they are situated. In terms of this distinction, a set may be concentrated, dispersed or constitute a network. What defines it as a set is that all its day-to-day functions and constituent facilities come, or are intended to come, under a single unified management. Thus the distinction, in short, is between set-planning and relationship-planning. In speaking of the "design of co-ordinated facilities" we are concerned with set-planning: the planning of relationships is discussed later in Part Four.

The Design Process

60. The aim of any design process is to devise the best possible compromise between what is desired and what is possible to get. The desirable embraces not one but many desires, some of which can only be met, if at all, at the expense of others. Thus design demands an ordering of preferences. How far the preferences can be satisfied depends on limitations imposed by economic, technological, legal and other constraints.

61. The search for the best compromise is cyclical. As compromises (that is to say, possible solutions to the design problem) are successively devised and evaluated, increasing light is shed on the interaction of conflicting desires and constraints; but, more than that, new possibilities are discovered which could not previously have been imagined. This changes the emphasis placed on different desires, so that a new order of preference emerges for which new compromises are sought. This cycle is then repeated as often as time allows, or, ideally, until further repetition fails to improve on the last solution reached.

62. Unless he is designing something for his own personal use the designer himself is in no position either to formulate desires or to express preferences. His function is to discover and indicate how far desires conflict with each other, and how far constraints allow them to be satisfied. Clearly therefore, the designer can not work alone, he can only work in dialogue with collaborators whose function is to formulate and reformulate desires and preferences throughout the cyclical process and whose contribution to a successful outcome is no less than his own.

Participants or Contributors to the Process

63. Visualising successful co-ordination as dependent on a harmonious partnership (cf. paragraph 32), the Symposium recognised that each of the partners or potential partners, or more particularly individuals competent to speak on their behalf, were essential contributors to the design dialogue. Among these, it accorded an important place, not only to official agencies but to the community groups or interests which form the less stable element of the partnership. Equally, it saw teachers, and others who would eventually staff the undertaking, as having views which were not to be overlooked, and it believed, furthermore, that by participating at some stage in the design process, such personnel would be relieved of at least some of the stresses of finding "reality at variance with their expectations" (cf. paragraph 38). Collectively, agencies, community groups and potential staff represent those who formulate desires and preferences and react to proposals made by the designers for reconciling them with the constraints which circumstances impose.

64. The emphasis placed on community participation, in design as in management, is not meant to obscure the equal importance attached to participation by officials and other professionals on whose expertise a successful outcome is no less important. Professionals in all the fields to be co-ordinated - education itself, health, leisure, housing, etc. - are needed in the team which formulates proposals around which the dialogue is conducted. In the words of one working group, "participation can only be effective if a team of specialists is available to put forward operable techniques for formulating needs, and to propose alternative schemes reflecting the variables to be taken into account, together with methods for dealing with advice and suggestions offered".

65. Not least important within or closely associated with the specialist team is, of course, the architect, not simply as a technician, but as an expert who, besides easing the impact of constraints, can go further. Rather than merely meeting the partnership's demands, he can sometimes offer them opportunities they had not expected to be open. The Symposium noted more than one case where the main stimulus for initiatives had come from an architect; and recognised that an imaginative architect, committed to serving the community, understands how to render articulate the needs which can be met by buildings but about which the ordinary person has feelings that are difficult to express. Because of this, the architect may well be able to reveal a potential in both new and existing buildings which might otherwise not be noticed, and indicate ways of using available financial resources to greater effect than might have been thought possible. Thus the Symposium emphasised the need to engage an imaginative and committed architect from the moment any possibilities for co-ordination first come under consideration.

66. As will be seen in a moment, only a few of the desire-formulating voices would be able to contribute at the outset of the design process; but the remainder would increasingly intervene as the process continued, so that by the time the final compromise had emerged, all had been taken into due account. Nevertheless, even in the earliest cycles of design, to hope or expect that such a range of participants could speak with a single voice is clearly unrealistic. For this reason, the Symposium recognised that the task of finding a consensus view, in which conflicting interests were weighed against each other in the wider interest of the whole, must again lie, as in the case of operating the undertaking, with a single individual acting as co-ordinator. The co-ordinator, besides discharging this main task, is the principal link between those who express the demands on the one hand, and, on the other, the specialist team

and architect. The qualities needed in such a person are those already mentioned in connection with the co-ordinator in charge of the undertaking once it has become operative (cf. paragraph 50).

Exploratory Phase of Design

67. All that has just been said about the nature of the design process and the importance of user interests joining in dialogue with the architect applies equally to the design of separate or co-ordinated facilities alike. But in the design of co-ordinated facilities, while user needs are no less critical, their identification is not the starting point. At the outset, not only the needs, but the users and user agencies which may possibly become partners in the project have themselves to be identified. As we have already underlined, the success of co-ordination depends on voluntary association of co-operating agencies, all of which must be able to see in it some promise for increasing their own effectiveness. The prime moving agency - that is to say, the agency which makes the first approach to others - will always see the potential of benefit, otherwise it would not take up the initiative. But the other agencies from which it seeks co-operation may well respond with caution, if not scepticism, and before entering a final commitment will wish to examine the likely consequences as closely as possible. Each potential partner must assess what partnership is likely to offer in the way of advantages or opportunity. Such assessment can not be carried far in abstract terms - it needs something concrete to bite on in terms of proposals for the form of the physical accommodation. As the PEB Steering Committee has, itself, remarked: "The building itself, or the need to design one, serves as a means of sharpening abstract ideas into proposals for concrete action; ... so that building implications need to be considered, not as the last stage in the implementation of policies, but at the point where alternatives are considered for the policies themselves".(1) If this is true for sectoral activity, it is even truer in relation to the formation of a co-ordination partnership. Thus the preparation of alternative designs becomes inseparable from the earliest stages of decision-making.

68. In the case of separate provision by official agencies, the economic constraints or, conversely, the finances available, are usually well known. In the case of co-ordinated facilities the extent of available

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1) Information Leaflet N° 9, "Educational Building: Policies and Co-operation", Programme on Educational Building, OECD, Paris, March, 1977.

resources is more difficult to define. This is partly because it depends on how many partners eventually make a contribution, and partly because, until the synergetic effect of combining resources has been closely investigated - in the earlier stages of the design dialogue - it is difficult to predict how far they can be stretched to meet desires. Furthermore, to the extent that community elements participate in the enterprise, possibilities may be opened up for drawing not only on official resources but also on some that may be available in industry or commerce and in the non-profit-making sector - universities, cultural and charitable foundations, etc. The Symposium also stressed the need to see resources in more than merely financial terms. The hidden value of voluntary effort has already been mentioned as one of the potential benefits of co-ordination. No less important among possibly available resources must be counted existing buildings for which co-ordination might find new and more effective uses. Clearly, if needs are to be satisfied as effectively as circumstances allow, then the investigation of needs and of alternative solutions must be accompanied by a wide-ranging survey which ensures that no potential resources, financial or other, are overlooked.

69. To have dealt with resources without having dealt first with needs may seem like having put the cart before the horse. But the Symposium recognised, as does the Synthesis, that both demands and the perception of underlying needs tend to be limited by what resources appear to be obtainable. Thus it is necessary in practice to see needs and resources as interactive and to treat them together as, so to speak, head-and-tail of the same coin, in the cyclical dialogue. In practice, too, the outline of needs already emerges when the potentials held out by partnership are first considered by the agencies which consider joining it; and as possibilities are assessed or evaluated, more of the outline is filled in. Once partners are firmly committed to going ahead with the project, the design process can continue on a much firmer base and need-identification can continue likewise.

70. We can see, then, that the design of a set of co-ordinated facilities begins with what is essentially an exploratory phase, the end of which is marked by the institution of some kind of partnership and by broad preliminary agreement between partners on how far activities can and should be integrated to meet the identified needs, and on the size and nature of each partner's contribution to and share of the resources identified as available. The Symposium saw as desirable that such agreement should also, if at all possible, be sufficiently hard in outline to include a timetable of subsequent action up to a target date for bringing the facilities into use, and also a target limit of expenditure to be incurred.

Search for the Best Solution

71. The preliminary exploration having reached the point where an initial partnership has been formed and the decisions mentioned taken in outline, design enters a second phase. Several titles present themselves as alternative shorthand descriptions of this phase. It might be called "Programme Development", using the word "programme" to imply a statement of needs the physical accommodation must meet(1). the size and environmental characteristics of its constituent elements and the desirable relationships between each of them. It might equally be called "The Design Phase", implying the invention of alternative ways of meeting those needs and the selection of the alternative which appears to offer the best balance of advantages. Or it might be described as "Secondary Negotiation", implying a firming up of any comparatively soft-edged commitments as to budget, recurrent financing and managerial structure, which may have marked the end of the first phase of preliminary exploration but which, as mentioned in paragraph 51, need to be clearly agreed before the facilities come into use. In fact, however, programme development, design and secondary negotiation are wholly interactive, each possibility in one restricting or opening up possibilities in another. Thus the second phase can best be described as a search for the best solution, with the word "solution" taken to mean solution of all these inter-related problems expressed in terms of plans for the physical accommodation and in terms of plans for subsequent management, each compatible with the other.

72. The Symposium identified a number of key activities in this phase and a number of considerations to be borne in mind when engaging in them. The first of these activities spreads over from the exploratory phase when the different user groups for whom the facilities are to cater are first identified (for example, children, adults, different interest groups). In the search phase the various activities (such as general learning activity, drama, sports, music) of each group need to be analysed or forecast, together with the accommodation required for them - its size and environmental character.(2) As a first step this needs to be done as though provision for each group were to be separately made, rather than co-ordinated. The next step is to identify the degree of duplication

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1) As distinct from needs which personnel and their activities must meet.

2) The need to match accommodation to activities is simply stated, but methods of doing so present a number of difficulties. These are examined at length in Building Implications of the Multi-Option School, OECD, Paris, 1975, and in Providing for Future Change - Adaptability and Flexibility in School Building, OECD, Paris, 1976.

or overlap which appears when the needs of all groups are seen together. Here it is important to recognise that where an activity is common to two or more user groups the same accommodation will only serve for all groups if there is no overlap in time. Where a time overlap is foreseen careful consideration is necessary to check whether it can be eradicated or whether doing so would produce unacceptable rigidity in patterns of use. If, on the other hand, it appears possible that several discrete user groups might be able to use the same set of facilities, it must not be assumed that those facilities should be "sized" according to the requirements of the heaviest user. An increase over that size may well be necessary - as for example when the activity produces "work in progress" which needs to be stored or otherwise kept undisturbed when another group occupies the working accommodation.

73. The Symposium did not, however, regard the avoidance of unnecessary duplication and overlap as the most important aspect of the search for solutions. Much the most important aspect it saw was the search for activities which would enable and encourage one user group or user interest to support and draw support from others, and as a corollary, the search for forms and inter-relationships (in time as well as in space) which would facilitate such co-operation and interdependence. Here it recognised that, while co-ordination may enable a user group to enjoy more facilities than it would otherwise have, support for co-operation may demand items of accommodation which no user group would need on its own. Thus the search for an acceptable solution must take account of needs which are inherent in the new dimensions which co-ordination as such can open up.

74. Mention has already been made (cf. paragraph 37) of the discord which can arise in operating facilities when the need arises to limit access to certain items of accommodation or reserve them for certain purposes at certain times. The opportunity which the search phase provides for "sharpening abstract ideas into proposals for concrete action" is also an opportunity, which should not be neglected, for anticipating such difficulties, and by anticipation, mitigating their effect. From this example, it may be seen that co-ordinated facilities constitute "a learning process" in their design as well as in their operation. By the same token, several working groups at the Symposium thought that the selection and appointment of staff should occur during the "exploratory phase" and that an important contribution to their training was the opportunity to participate in the "search for solution" phase. The same applies to other personnel as well as to teachers, although until the exploratory phase

is sufficiently advanced there will be some uncertainty as to what the other personnel will comprise. Such participation also promotes the balance between "destructive attitudes of ownership and a "sense of responsibility and pride" to which reference has already been made in paragraph 44.

75. The search phase culminates in the point where no further cycle in the design dialogue can improve on the last compromise reached between the desirable and the attainable (cf. paragraph 61). This compromise constitutes "the best solution"; and the solution takes the form, not only of plans and specifications for new buildings or for conversion work where old ones are re-used, it consists also of a complementary management plan for operating the facilities - concentrated or dispersed - when they are handed over for use.

Overlap of Design and Management

76. Although the design process culminates in a "best solution" it should not be seen as ending there. A protracted period will then follow before the plans are implemented, during which new needs may appear or the emphasis change on those already identified, with the consequence that, in the natural course of events a degree of mismatch between activities and accommodation is to be expected when the facilities are first ready for use. It is important, therefore, that the design participants should remain active throughout this period in order to keep initiatives and public interest alive, and in order to plan for the adjustments needed in the first period of use.

77. As we have noted in Part Two, the course which co-ordinated facilities must follow is open-ended and unpredictable. As a consequence, from the moment they come into use, not only must initial mismatches be corrected, but also the subsequent mismatches brought to light by continuing evaluation. Thus the cyclical dialogue of design must overlap with the operation of facilities and become a permanent feature of their management.

Part Four

LOCATION AND INTER-RELATIONSHIPS

Concept of Magnetic Fields

78. Given that the purpose is to serve community needs, the question naturally arises of what community a particular set of co-ordinated facilities is meant to benefit. The Synthesis has referred to the almost mythical "Golden Age" of the "community school", when school life was more or less merged into community life, as in the pioneer period of America or in the old village school doubling as "Mairie" in rural France. But nowadays, even in rural areas, increased mobility means that a cohesive and easily identifiable sense of community is rarely found. In modern urban conditions, it only exists where it reflects deprivation or ethnic or racial isolation. In some of the cases studied, especially those related to the United States, deprivation or racial problems have, of course, been the means of igniting action to co-ordinate facilities, and it may be that crisis is the most powerful impetus that co-ordination can have. The Symposium, however, while aware of the lessons to be learned from these examples, was more concerned with co-ordination as a pre-determined and controlled means towards effective community service; and although it recognised that the removal of social inequalities was among the most important objectives of such service, it saw co-ordinated facilities as serving, not only the socially deprived, but a much wider cross-section of "the community" also. Here, however, it ran into the difficulty of defining "the community".

79. As already remarked in paragraph 34, "the community" can only be recognised from the voices and pressures which are expressed by identifiable interest groups. This suggests that, although "community" is currently a fashionable word, it really has no more meaning (apart from the instances of deprivation just mentioned) than "the general public living in a particular locality". This being so, the question posed at the start of this part becomes, in effect, "what particular locality is a given set of co-ordinated facilities meant to serve?", which implies in turn, that the answer must prescribe the geographical boundaries of the locality. This raises a further problem.

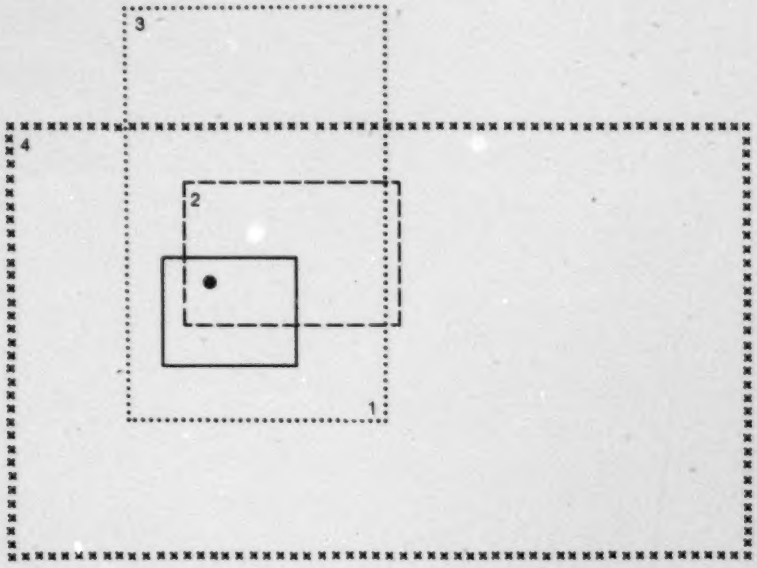
80. Let us take, by way of an example (in which the features are exaggerated for the sake of driving home the point) a set of co-ordinated facilities where elements are recombined which, if provided separately would be found in a secondary school, a creche, a theatre and, say, a well-equipped astronomical observatory. The school pupils either walk or get

to school in specially provided buses and come from a recruitment area whose boundaries are 5 to 10 kilometres from the facilities, but their homes are mostly in one part of that area. The mothers entrusting their babies to the creche are mostly working mothers, some of whom call there on their way to work by car, but most of whom are obliged to walk there with their prams. Thus the creche serves a much smaller area, close to the facilities, than the secondary school. The theatre is used and attended mostly by adults whose families have grown up, so that while some of its patrons come from the locality where most of the school pupils are concentrated, the remainder live either in a different part of the school recruitment zone or else outside that zone altogether. The observatory, which is the gift of a major optical company employing many of the local workers, attracts amateur astronomers from as much as three hours drive from the facilities centre.

81. From this example we can see that the notion of "locality served" is of very limited value, and that it is more useful to think of each element in co-ordinated facilities as having, so to speak, its own magnetic field within which it attracts its clientele. Separate facilities, particularly those with a voluntary clientele, can also be seen as magnets; but the synergetic effect of co-ordination means that the magnets in co-ordinated facilities do not exactly correspond to them. This does not, however, stand in the way of identifying the various client groups who are attracted and by so doing the corresponding magnetic fields can be discerned. This concept can be illustrated by diagram 1.

82. In any real case the number of magnetic fields will depend on what facilities are comprised in the co-ordinated set. The geographical extent and shape of each field will depend on a number of factors, all of which interact with each other. The first factor is ease of access, which in turn is governed by the precise location of the set of facilities, by transport networks, by physical obstructions which discourage pedestrian as well as vehicular access, and by the mode of transport - bus, train, private car or walking - to which a particular clientele may be restricted. In this respect may be noted the fact that access and therefore location is of much greater importance in the case of co-ordination than in the case of separate facilities. The second factor embraces all the demographic characteristics of the population which, depending on ease of access, are within reach of the facilities: age and social structure (including the incidence of new immigrants, ethnic groups and so on), relative wealth, and the location of homes and workplaces. The third factor is the proximity of alternative facilities. The astronomers in our

Diagram 1 - The small black circle represents the set of co-ordinated facilities. Each rectangle represents a different magnetic field (numbered 1 to 4), the number of fields depending on the number of magnets which can be identified from the various clientele served.



extreme example are willing to travel three hours to use the observatory because they would have to travel much further to reach any other. The theatre users, or some of them, will diminish in number if another theatre is established nearer at hand. How many mothers use the creche and how far they are willing to walk to it, clearly depends on the proximity of any alternative. Furthermore, unless there are other creches within one of the larger magnetic fields, some mothers will be out of reach of such a facility and their need will not be met.

Need for Relationship-Planning

83. Clearly, change in any one of the three factors - access, demographic character and proximity of alternatives - can profoundly affect any set of co-ordinated facilities and distort its magnetic fields. Change can result from the construction of a new motorway (autoroute) which, while improving access for some, cuts off or forms a barrier for pedestrians or cyclists. The decline of a traditional industry or the growth of a new one attracting immigrants will alter the nature of the clienteles. A large new reservoir in the vicinity which provides new opportunities for leisure may constitute a rival facility yet at the same time create a demand for facilities and instruction to be available for amateur boat-builders or sail-makers. Some change is of an order that allow co-ordinated facilities to take it in their stride and even, perhaps, to influence it. Resistance to the withdrawal of a bus service, or pressure

on the company to add a new one or change its timetables would be an example. But major changes, which result from macro-level decisions, demand that both the managers and the designers of co-ordinated facilities must have advance notice of them if they are to take their likely consequences into account. Thus an important forecasting function has to be performed.

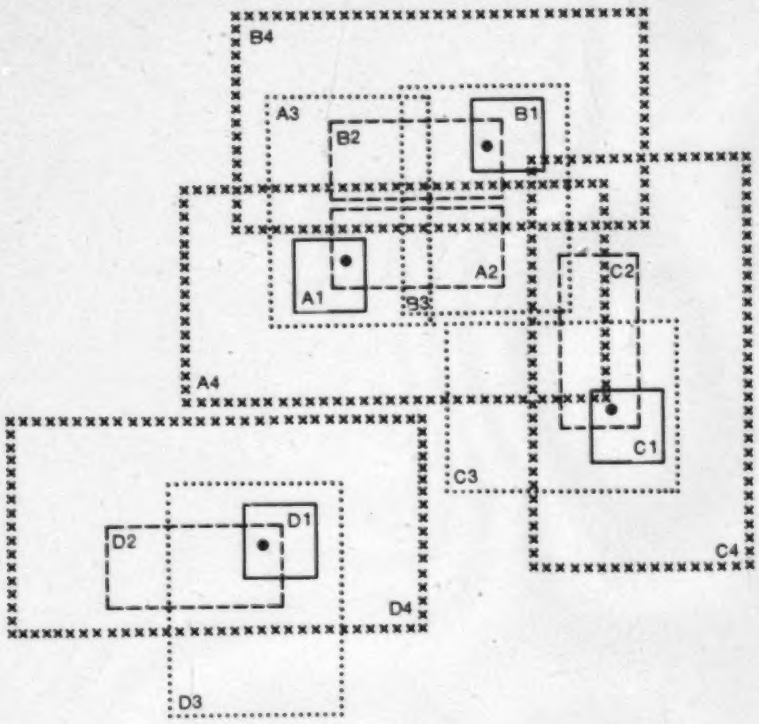
84. Co-ordinated facilities constitute so far only comparatively rare exceptions to the norm, with the result that the consequences of the relationship of one set to another have received little attention. But in envisaging co-ordination as itself becoming the norm, the Symposium drew attention to the need to take full account of the proximity factor in both design and management.

85. Diagram 2 represents four sets of facilities A, B, C and D each of which has the same four types of facility and magnetic field as in Diagram 1. Gaps between fields are meant to indicate that the type of facility concerned is unavailable to some of the population in the area covered by the diagram. Overlaps of fields indicate a risk of over-provision. The proximity of the four sets is such that considerable gaps occur for type 1. Sets A and B, however, are close enough to ensure that all other gaps are closed, but at the cost of some overlap between types 3 and 4. Closing the type 1 gaps would obviously greatly increase these overlaps and cause an overlap also in type 2. Set C is remote enough from A and B to eradicate a type 3 overlap, but at the expense of a gap in type 2 and some overlap in type 4. Set D, even more remote, avoids all overlaps but in doing so opens up more gaps.

86. The previous paragraph may appear to be no more than a tedious explanation of the obvious fact that the closer facilities are to each other the less the risk of leaving gaps but the greater the risk of overlaps. But if the principles indicated in the diagram are applied to a real geographical area it will readily be seen that the problems of eliminating gaps and overlaps are more easily stated than overcome. More importantly, it will be evident that if co-ordinated facilities are to become the norm and not the exception one set of facilities can not be considered in isolation from its neighbours, the relationships which each has to the other must be carefully determined.

87. Because the proximity factor interacts with factors of demography and access, the task of determining these relationships is closely linked with the forecasting referred to in paragraph 83. Thus the Symposium discussions have led to the recognition that some kind of mechanism is required to perform both of these two functions, namely, a relationship-planning mechanism.

Diagram 2 - A4 in corner of a magnetic field indicates magnetic field 4 of facilities A.



Constitution and Level of the Mechanism

88. In countries where local authorities enjoy a high degree of financial self-sufficiency and therefore a corresponding degree of autonomy, it may be thought that there is neither the need nor the possibility of establishing such a relationship-planning mechanism. But the various clienteles served by co-ordinated facilities do not confine their activities within the area contained by the boundaries of local authority jurisdiction. Thus, even where the provision of co-ordinated facilities is mainly a local authority's responsibility the authority concerned still has an interest to co-operate with its neighbours in assuring that gaps are closed without unnecessary and wasteful overlapping. In such cases, the establishment of such a mechanism will, of course, depend on voluntary agreement on the part of all the local authorities concerned, but the mechanism itself will have a regional or supra-local character.

89. In most countries local authorities do not enjoy such a measure of self-sufficiency: they draw financially on higher levels of government and rely on them for the provision of some services and for advice. These higher levels usually have the duty of seeing that resources are allocated

in a way which redresses the imbalance that would otherwise be perpetuated between the richer and the poorer of the local authorities under them. They have a duty, too, to see that resources of any kind, and originating no matter where, are used to the best effect. So for these higher levels of government a relationship-planning mechanism at a supra-local level is no less necessary.

90. In either case, the mechanism will need to be so constituted as to provide expert forecasting services from economists, demographers and sociologists. With these it will also need to unite sectoral and physical planners at regional level. But not the least important component will consist of representatives of those responsible for the management of existing sets of co-ordinated facilities and for the design of sets which are yet to be established.

Further Tasks for the Mechanism

91. The central task for relationship-planning, namely the filling of gaps and the elimination of unnecessary overlaps, has to be discharged no matter whether local authorities are self-sufficient or not. But when such authorities are subject to oversight from higher levels further tasks for the mechanism arise. Priorities need to be established, so that, as sets of facilities evolve, capital injected into set A (and, of course, the facilities the capital buys) is not too long under-utilised because simultaneous support for set B slows down the rate at which further facilities can be provided. For example, a restaurant intended to serve a multi-function complex will be under-utilised until sufficient other facilities are provided to accommodate all functions - an assumption being that all facilities can seldom be provided at once. This last consideration indicates that relationship-planning must also take account of the different times and intervals at which contributing sectors or agencies have finance available. Thus the co-ordination of financial inputs is an important task for the mechanism responsible.

Front Line and General Headquarters

92. Part One listed among the potential benefits of co-ordinated facilities those which tended to support inter-sectoral co-operation amongst the various welfare services of the modern state. A discussion of what measures are possible and desirable to support inter-sectoral co-operation

lies beyond the scope of this paper.(1) But as we have noted earlier, the consideration of building needs sharpens abstract concepts into proposals for concrete action. Thus it is worth suggesting that a mechanism for relationship planning at regional level might well provide a point on which inter-sectoral co-operation could be brought into sharper focus.

93. Part One (paragraph 27) also saw co-ordinated facilities as a means of carrying inter-sectoral co-operation forward from "general headquarters to the front line". The various sets of facilities themselves may be seen to constitute the front line where the enemy of social inequalities and deprivation is engaged, and (even in localities not marked by inequalities or deprivation) the conflict between planners and the public comes to a head. To the extent that social provision remains sectorised, the ministries or departments residually responsible for each sector represent in this metaphor the general headquarters. In the relationship-planning mechanism we may thus discern the liaison which is vital between the two for a successful outcome in the battle of the dynamics of change.

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1) The subject has been treated, however, in other parts of the Organisation. See Participatory Planning in Education, OECD, 1974 ; Inter-Sectoral Educational Planning, OECD, 1977 ; also work on-going in the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) on "Education and the Integration of Community Services".

Part Five

MAJOR STRATEGIES

Attitudes and Incentives

94. For so long as the co-ordination of facilities remains an exception to general practice strategies are needed which reduce its vulnerability. At the root of this vulnerability is the tendency for all concerned - policy-makers, administrators, the general public, users and staff - to cling to sectoral habits; so the strategies needed must aim to reverse this tendency by creating new attitudes of mind, by reducing administrative obstacles and by providing appropriate incentives.

95. First of all, fears must be removed. Among these is the fear of exploitation to which the staff of co-ordinated facilities are prone and which goes hand in hand with vaguer fears of the unfamiliar. Strategies for disposing of these twin fears would ensure that:

i) staff appointed to co-ordinated facilities were selected for their interest and enthusiasm for co-operative work, rather than because seniority or purely professional qualifications entitled them to first consideration;

ii) appointees received some special training - in-service where possible - before their appointment was confirmed; the purpose, here, is not solely to improve their effectiveness but to lessen the likelihood of their finding "reality at variance with their expectations" - interest and enthusiasm can sometimes rest on a misunderstanding of what the reality is like;

iii) when co-ordination modifies traditional sectoral roles or increases the workload on personnel, rewards and/or staffing are modified to correspond; knowledge that such measures are possible is important to allaying fears of exploitation;

iv) the recruitment of staff could begin during the exploratory phase of set-planning and their training could include participation during the "search for solution" phase (see paragraph 74).

96. As we have said earlier, the agency which makes the first move towards co-ordination, the prime mover, will have overcome its fears; but not so the others which the prime mover seeks to draw into partnership - their fears still have to be allayed. With this in mind, one Symposium working group suggested that "it would seem preferable to avoid the provision of accommodation which from the outset imposes the necessity of living in a climate of enforced innovation - the accommodation should, on the contrary,

allow for gradual evolution away from traditional practice towards a wider opening out of activities with respect to each other. If this seems a timid view to take, it at least exemplifies the timidity with which potential partners, as well as staff, may approach co-ordination and warns against the dangers of forcing the pace too hard. Nevertheless, there is no escaping the fact that effectively co-ordinated facilities differ so much from separate provision that the dangers lie just as much the other way - without determined effort the evolution away from sectoral practice will simply not occur. Thus it is important to understand more of the nature of fears and look more closely at how they may be set aside.

97. Three alternative relationships may be noted between prime moving agencies and their potential partners, either:

i) a strong prime mover seeks partnership with agencies which, while having facilities at their disposal, are nevertheless weaker in terms of financial or manpower resources; this is the case with schools, which owe their strength and predominance to the fact that the provision of education is a statutory requirement; weaker agencies then fear a "takeover"; or

ii) a relatively weak prime mover looks to a "strong" agency as the partner which can act as vehicle or "patron" for extending its opportunities; here the strong agency is liable to fear disruption of its principal functions; or

iii) a prime mover extending its own functions discovers that some are already being discharged by others, and seeks co-ordination as a means of concentrating and pooling resources to better effect; here the other agencies are liable to be suspicious of "poaching", and disputes may arise over the demarcation of responsibilities.

98. The Symposium realised that many of these fears would finally be set at rest only by actual experience in the successful planning and management of a co-ordinated project. But it saw also that some positive steps were necessary of a more general nature and taken at a higher level of decision-making than that concerned with a particular individual project. It saw all such steps as being taken by, for example, central government, and directed towards creating what one working group called an "administrative reflex".

99. The first step is to ensure that whenever proposals are advanced for building a new school - or for extending or replacing an old one - the self-sufficiency of the school should be called in question and its possible links with other facilities closely scrutinised. This does not run

counter, as at first sight it may seem to, to safeguarding the "specificity" of the school. The latter is a separate issue and is in no way threatened by extending the facilities available to the school, nor need it be threatened if the school shares some facilities with other users.

100. Secondly, proposals for any building project, whether for education or for any other social sector, should be made the occasion and focus for consultation about wider local needs and possibilities for co-ordination. The "administrative reflex" should be such that any such proposal should be examined for ways in which it might be strengthened or in which wider purposes might be served by co-operation with another sector or sectors. As a corollary to the foregoing, when proposals for any building project come under consideration, a systematic study should be made of how it relates to the overall needs of the locality or region, for which other sectors may be responsible and for which other facilities may either exist or form the subject of simultaneous proposals.

101. Finally, it seems important to set up some kind of inter-sectoral advisory service to explore and make known the opportunities which co-ordination can offer and the means by which, in the particular national circumstances concerned, the opportunities can be pursued. Such a service would be directed at three levels of decision-making: at the highest level where problems of managerial magnitude are such that sectorisation remains inevitable, but where measures to promote inter-sectoral co-ordination are, for that very reason, all the more important; at the "lowest level" of the localities in which co-ordinated facilities are actually set up; and at the intermediate level of relationship planning. At all levels an important function of the advisory service would be to provide re-assurance that the specificity of both the school and of any other participating institution can be safeguarded - especially with the aid of carefully considered and imaginative architectural design. Such reassurance is needed to allay fears of disruption. The advisory service needs also to hold out clear prospects that planning and management mechanisms can be so devised as to regulate and control overlaps between agencies in such a way as to ensure that any poaching or take-overs that ever do occur, result from mutual agreement rather than from pressures exerted by a dominating partner. It is hoped that the experience gathered in the present series of PEB activities, both the Symposium and the studies preceding it, will provide a sound basis on which such advice can be offered.

102. The advisory group would need to do more than simply allay fears. As we have said, it must alert all levels of decision-making to the opportunities. Some at the Symposium might have wished it to go further and

become a committed propagandist for co-ordination; but were it to do so it would run the risk of losing credibility, for the advantages do not all lie on the side of co-ordination; and it would hide the fact that co-ordination is no more than a means to an end, and not an end in itself.

103. Even though it is not an end in itself, justifiable progress towards co-ordination may still need positive assistance if it is not to be blocked by institutional inertia, so that the Symposium saw the need, in some instances, for measures to remove such blockages. These might take the form of incentives devised to offer clear advantages to participants in a co-ordinated project. Incentives might include entitlement to favourable loan terms, access to supra-sectoral subventions, or priority over unco-ordinated schemes.

104. Finally, in its consideration of attitudes and incentives, the Symposium saw the need for authorities to introduce two important new riders to the brief given to their officials. Thus:

i) Faced with a new public demand, officialdom has the tendency to take refuge in saying "We have already done all that the law requires us to do". The first rider should instruct officialdom to add, "Now let us see how far the law allows us to meet your needs even further".

ii) Public involvement in official decisions is often seen both by officials and their political masters as a tiresome and delaying irritant. Despite the fact that most participants at the Symposium were themselves public officials, all agreed that this attitude also needed to be modified. Thus the second rider should provide encouragement for greater public participation, not so much as an ideal of democratic principle (although that is not to be lightly ignored) but more as a means of improving the effectiveness of identifying the needs and priorities for co-ordinated facilities to meet. Such encouragement would itself include open recognition of the need to extend the decision-making timetable, with all that is then implied for forward planning.

The Public Voice

105. While thus emphasising the importance of the public voice - not only for greater effectiveness, but also for the sake of political maturation - the Symposium drew attention to some dangers, over and above those of unacceptable delay, against which strategies needed to provide adequate safeguards.

106. The first danger arises from the fact that, as noted earlier, "the community" can only be recognised by the voices emanating from interests and pressure groups within it. But beside these articulate groups and interests the community includes a less-vociferous majority, among whom are some who not only fail to articulate their needs, but who are incapable of doing so. It is precisely in this last group that the need for social action is often most pressing, yet for want of adequate expression is most easily overlooked. Thus strategies for encouraging public participation need to ensure that all aspects of public need are taken into the account they are due. In this connection the Symposium noted in particular the experiences in Australia, France and the United States which have been commented on in the Synthesis, paragraphs 74-77.

107. Although the Symposium was very properly concerned to explore ways by which co-ordinated facilities could be established and conducted to secure maximum advantage, at no point did it suggest that they could be regarded as a universal panacea. Furthermore it drew attention to the dangers of drawing into the ambit of co-ordination activities which would flourish better outside it. This may apply to strong and stable institutions. It applies with even greater force to the small but valuable initiatives (see paragraph 42) which can so easily wither away in the overwarm grasp of a protective hand or the continued vitality of which demands that they remain independent and external to any large organisation which might overwhelm them. Thus no strategy for co-ordination should exclude a strategy for the support of <u>un</u>co-ordinated community enterprises.

108. At the other extreme from these small voices lie the more powerful and well-established forces of local industry or commerce. Strategies which fail to include a place for these also in the decision-making process are liable to neglect a valuable contribution. Not only does this sector of the community sometimes have resources which it can add to co-ordination, it can often throw further light on the needs which have to be met.

109. Despite the adverse comments that have been made on some trends in officialdom, it is by no means true that all public officials are insensitive to the public interest or to the exceptional needs of individuals and minority groups. Thus there is a danger, too, in what might be called the too-ready indulgence of public demand. We have stressed earlier the importance of distinguishing expressed demand from the real underlying need (paragraph 42 again), and the danger of unnecessary overlaps or avoidable gaps if one set of facilities is not seen in relationship to others in adjacent localities. In emphasising the importance of the "community voice" the Symposium was not blind to a conflicting consideration: the need for "the authorities" to have proper regard for the

balance of needs and demands between a number of communities (how many depends on the area over which the authorities have control), all of which are to some extent competing for resources, some of which are richer than others, some under-privileged and some less able to articulate their needs. Thus the Symposium saw that, whatever steps may be taken to encourage community initiative, they should at the same time ensure that each community sees its own needs in a broader context, understands that to satisfy them all at once may not be feasible, and is therefore willing to share with authority the responsibility for establishing an order of priority. Strategies for countering these dangers might again rely on the intervention of the advisory service (paragraphs 101 and 102), linked to whatever mechanism is charged with planning inter-relationships (Part Four). The important result to ensure is that public participation in decision-making is accompanied by equal and no less responsible participation in the whole process of evaluating needs and the resources which can be found for meeting them.

Research, Development and Evaluation

110. Any decision on whether to co-ordinate facilities or not is bound to involve some kind of evaluation of the advantage which may be expected. But where such evaluation is concerned with the results obtained from earlier experience or experiments in co-ordination it must avoid a number of dangers. The first is that of failing to recognise which aspects of any given project are not transferable to another because of the extent to which either is unique. Another lies in the "accountant's approach" which ignores advantages which can not be quantified and which tends to see economic issues not just as important, but as all-important (see Synthesis, paragraphs 149 and 150). The third danger lies in the temptation (irrisistible in cases of institutional inertia) to postpone action until research and evaluation have explored every possible avenue, covered all conceivable eventualities, revealed so many difficulties that ample excuse is found for doing nothing or, even if action is taken at all it relates to a situation which has become a closed page of history.

111. This is not to say that the Symposium was opposed to research or evaluation as the basis of policies. On the contrary, it saw research as indispensible to the identification of needs and to the analysis of the complex inter-relationships between them; and it saw the evaluation of solutions as integral with such research. But the discussions drew out, also, the importance of "development". Here the point to be made is that research can have great value in explaining phenomena, in separating fact from fiction, reality from myth. But it by no means leads automatically to a solution: indeed by revealing complexities not previously

perceived it can make a solution more difficult to find. The solution of problems may depend on prior analysis but of itself demands an act of creative imagination. In any human activity, especially where the design of buildings is an integral factor, no solution is ever total or complete or perfect - partly because imagination itself has limited powers, but also because the act of building changes the parameters of behaviour and in doing so alters the nature of the problem. So in terms of building the discovery of solutions can not be seen as finite, but only as a continuous process of development.

112. At a given point in time, all school buildings, as a class, tend to have a strong resemblance to each other. They have virtues and defects in common. When the defects become too intolerable for changing or developing educational purposes a new development in school building design becomes necessary to remove them, so that projects which correspond to a new phase of educational evolution can be described as development projects. Research reveals the nature of the defects and indicates the directions in which solutions may lie, but only the creative process of design will produce the solution which marks the new node of development. Recognising that co-ordinated facilities are best seen as a continuous response to the dynamics of change, the Symposium was led to conclude that every venture in co-ordinated facilities for co-ordinated services must be seen as a development project. But whereas, in the case of separate and isolated schools, a development project represented a new node which many other projects would come to resemble until the next node was reached, each co-ordinated facilities project could be represented as an open-ended series of nodal developments.

113. It was in determining the course of developments from one node to the next that the Symposium saw the prime purpose of evaluation. To serve this purpose evaluation is concerned with a number of areas of interest for each of which the form and frequency of evaluation differ. Thus, one area of interest is concerned with how effectively the accommodation is utilised. This calls for a statistical analysis of the number of users, measured by activity, by age group, by time and hour of attendance (e.g. two hours in the morning) etc; and such analysis needs to be conducted seasonally, taking account of differences between summer and winter activities. Another, and indeed more critical, subject for evaluation is, of course, the degree to which the facilities satisfy the needs of the several "clienteles" or attract all the clienteles who might benefit from the services provided. In this area evaluation may have several forms, ranging from organised surveys to relatively informal daily observation.

114. Although evaluation relates to the development of co-ordinated undertakings, its results need to be taken into account elsewhere than in the undertakings themselves. Their application to relationship-planning is one instance. But more important still, the tactical information which evaluation provides needs to be transmitted upwards to the levels where sectoral policies are kept under review, where requirements for resources and their allocation have to be determined. And finally, it is important to bear in mind the possibility that evaluation of co-ordinated undertakings may well cast light on needs which can be met more effectively by alternative means.

Resources and their Allocation

115. Although one of the benefits that may be obtained from co-ordination is a net economic gain, it must not be assumed that all items on the balance sheet are on the profit side. Charges have to be met which do not arise in the case of separate facilities but which nevertheless are justified by the broader benefits towards which co-ordination is directed. These charges relate to the staffing on the one hand and to physical accommodation on the other, and must be taken into account in estimating the resources needed (cf. paragraph 68).

116. The tendency to higher personnel charges results from the "multiplier effect" of co-ordination, that is to say, the effect of meeting needs which leads on to the identification of further needs to be met in turn. The tendency towards debit entries for the physical accommodation stem partly from the same cause - co-ordinated facilities encouraging a wider range of activities than separate provision permits. But account has to be taken of two further factors. One is the cost of site, which, since it must be more easily accessible, is likely to be in a position for which competition from other interests is strong. The other is that, in addition to normal maintenance and running costs, periodic injections of finance are needed to make such adaptations as are required as the pattern of activities changes (see also paragraph 18).

117. On the other hand, as the preceding parts of this report have suggested the whole burden of these higher charges need not fall entirely on the public sector, subject to the important proviso that no obstacles are left in the way of voluntary contributions from individuals who give free service, from clubs or associations, charitable institutions or benevolent commercial or industrial enterprises. From this we may conclude that in estimating resources needed, full account must be taken of all the resources likely to be available, privately as well as publicly, for meeting the

requirements established. And as we have also noted, available resources may include existing buildings, already in public hands or, alternatively, open to purchase at a favourable price because co-ordination can bring them into more profitable use. As far as public buildings are concerned, any embargos which prevent their transfer from the sector which is their present legal owner will be among the obstacles to be removed.

118. The issues of resource allocation relate to three separate areas of decision. The first area includes all the decisions which authorities at supra-local level need to make in order to avoid wasteful overlaps at local level or to ensure that resources go to the localities where the need is more urgent (see paragraphs 89 and 109). The second decision area is that concerned with the design of a given set of co-ordinated facilities, when all partners to the undertaking must decide on their respective contributions. Finally there is the case of facilities in operation. It is here that strategies for supporting co-ordination need to ensure that those responsible for the undertaking enjoy the widest possible power to allocate the resources at their disposal in such a way that they are used to best possible effect.

Transfers of Power

119. What has just been said relates to a view expressed with such force at the Symposium as to merit some expansion at this point. Most co-ordinated facilities to date can be seen as lying somewhere along the path which leads from mere intersectoral co-operation towards what many participants saw as the ideal of intersectoral integration. In those which are only a short way along the path juxtaposed items of accommodation continue to function independently under separate management, but the managing agencies find themselves prompted to co-operate in order to manage the linking accommodation, or even to go further and provide other accommodation which all can share - and which all must again co-operate to manage. In those that have gone furthest a significantly greater proportion of the total accommodation is shared, and while each managing agency retains control over its own territory it offers the use of some of that territory as a facility to others. Furthermore, each agency extends its own activities so as to lend support to the activities of others, and all co-operate to increase the benefits and reduce the conflicts of this interplay between accommodation and activities. As soon as the agencies begin to interact in this way they begin to generate a spirit of coherence and a desire for the flexibility of manoeuvre necessary for prompt response to changing needs. But wherever co-operation and co-ordination lie along the path,

all agencies and partners remain answerable to parent organisations, departments or ministries, are still tied by strong apron and purse strings to the sectorally divided world, and are exposed to the risk that the sectoral grip will pull them backwards (cf. paragraphs 40 and 54).

120. The Symposium therefore predicated a higher level on which more effective co-ordination in a second generation of co-ordinated facilities might be founded. At this level the sectoral purse and apron strings would be untied, or at any rate loosened. Individual partners would merge into a single and corporate identity - and by this means, would be better placed to promote reciprocal expansion, contraction or change of functions, in response to evolving and newly-emerging needs. Thus strategies need to support the natural tendency for co-operating agencies to federate and need eventually to consolidate the resulting federation by granting it sufficient autonomy to be sectorally independent. Such strategies imply what is, in effect, some transfer of decision-making powers.

121. Linked with this notion of power-transfer are the obstacles presented by division of responsibility. By its nature the co-ordination of community facilities is essentially a local activity. Yet instances are known where the structure of administration is such that, while responsibility for some services is carried at local level, for others only higher levels have authority to act. An example is the case of Scotland where, following the re-organisation of local government, education has become the responsibility of Regions, whereas library services are dealt with by the smaller District Councils. Without powerful safeguards to the contrary, such separation of responsibilities incurs two risks: on the one hand that decision-making may be too far removed from its point of application, insulated against local reaction; and on the other hand, that suspicions can arise (justifiably or not) that partners on the higher level carry more weight than those from lower down. To ensure that the necessary safeguards are, in fact taken, and to ensure that all service agencies are capable of operating at local level (even if some are still to some extent overseen from above) seem important factors in supporting co-ordination and in creating the essential climate of mutual trust. In short, a transfer of power from higher to lower levels of administration may be implied.

122. Finally, as we have already seen, the Symposium attached much importance to some transfer of power from public authority to private community. In this it recognised that in many instances so-called public participation in decision-making is no more than a charade - in which officialdom listens to community views but then does nothing to meet them. Without some

powers over officialdom the private community is helpless. Yet how to effect the transfer of power poses a problem for democratic logic; for what are public officials, in theory, but the servants of the public and answerable to the public's elected representatives? However, despite the fact that co-ordinated facilities aim to serve the widest possible cross-section of the community, their clienteles may be seen as a public within the public, and the interests which they bring into focus may be very different from those around which political elections are normally contested. Thus while recognising that the institutional form would necessarily reflect national attitudes and practices, the Symposium underlined the need for strategies to be developed which would offer some means for including clientele representatives within the governing mechanism of each co-ordinated undertaking.

Regulations and Laws

123. Many Symposium participants with experience of co-ordination had encountered obstacles in the form of regulations drafted with separate provision in mind. Difficulties arise, for example, when norms of floor area, cost, etc., devised for application to separate facilities, have to be translated into terms appropriate to co-ordinated projects - so that they take due account of "sectoral overlaps", shared accommodation, multiple sources of finance and so on. To ensure that existing norms are interpreted flexibly until such time as new ones can be devised to meet these special circumstances, is thus a further important factor in support of co-ordination.

124. Even more troublesome than regulations of the kind which are open to administrative revision are the limitations imposed by law on the agencies which enter into a co-ordinating partnership. Such limitations may prohibit an agency from extending its functions in the way co-ordination might suggest as of benefit to the community. They may prohibit the transfer of property referred to in 117 above, or prohibit the acceptance of contributions offered by sources in the private sector. The idenfitication of such obstacles is an important function of the evaluation process.

125. The examples of co-ordinated facilities are so many that it is clear that legal and regulatory limitations do not prevent their establishment. But there is strong evidence that such limitations stand in the way of allowing the potential benefits to be fully realised. The value and magnitude of that potential is such that the Symposium was in no doubt that every means should be sought of amending obstructive legislation.

Part Six

THE SYMPOSIUM AND THE PROGRAMME ON EDUCATIONAL BUILDING

126. The stated purpose of the Symposium was "to bring together people having responsibilities in the fields of education - in particular school building - community life and urban planning, to discuss their common problems regarding the ways in which needs for educational, cultural and social facilities can be met jointly within the context of urban development and in the best possible conditions of space, time and cost". The results which this report has attempted to distil go beyond that comparatively limited purpose and add new dimensions to the OECD Programme on Educational Building.

127. The Symposium has served as a useful postscript, not only to the Programme's activity on co-ordinated facilities but to earlier activities also. It has shown for example that institutional arrangements for school building (the subject of PEB Information Leaflet N° 6) can no longer be considered separately from those for other sectors. It has also added new dimensions to the studies described in the PEB publication Providing for Future Change: Adaptability and Flexibility in School Building.

128. In its recent report "Educational Building: Policies and Co-operation" (PEB Information Leaflet N° 9) the Steering Committee for the Programme discerned a number of issues for the future. First it saw a problem in clearing the backlog of the past - with the need to modify the large existing stock of buildings rendered unsuitable by the flux of urban dynamics. But it saw this as part of a larger concern with new educational issues, all pointing to the need for inter-sectoral co-operation. One such issue, early childhood education, will call for the problems of the school itself to be treated inter-actively with those of family, neighbourhood and parents' working environment. Another, adult education in its many forms, will demand closer links between schools, museums, libraries and so on - each incidentally tending to extend outside their traditional confines. Education for adolescents over school-leaving age, but not heading for higher education - in brief, "post-compulsory" education - seems likely to involve not only the school itself but other social services, industry and commerce also. The Symposium has indicated ways in which inter-sectoral co-operation might be promoted whether facilities are co-ordinated or not.

129. The Steering Committee also foresaw that the new issues would have to be confronted against a context where economic stringency would demand a

strict ordering of priority, with special attention to redressing social disadvantage in run-down urban areas and in rural areas which were sparsely-populated or where attempts were being made to counter urban drift. This context also is one to which the Symposium conclusions are closely related.

130. Finally, the Steering Committee's statement noted a growing demand for new relationships between authority and the individual, a demand "which presses authority to recognise, more than it finds convenient, that policies must allow for a wider diversity of tastes and modes of living". While recognising the need for a sympathetic response to this attitude, the Committee was not unaware of the conflicts to be resolved between local interests and the larger interest of society as a whole. A recurrent concern of the Symposium has been with measures for minimising or resolving such conflicts and with the objectives of "government by response".

131. The Symposium, then, proved itself more than a culminating follow-up to the preceding PEB activity on the co-ordination of school and community facilities. Its results not only provide a postscript to other, earlier activities, it can be seen also as an invaluable reconnaissance of paths which future activities of the Programme may be expected to explore.

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